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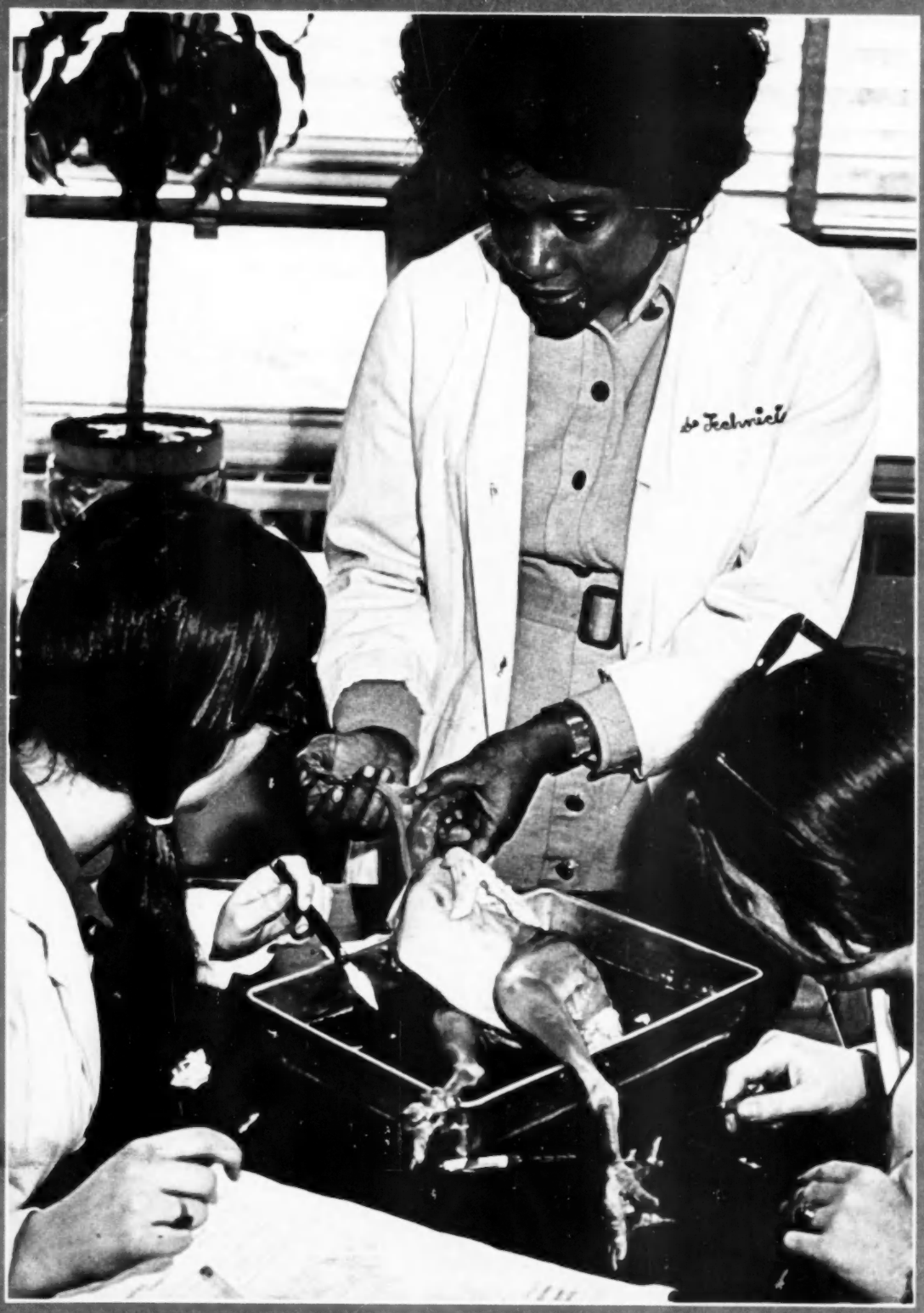
MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION



health careers and high schools

manpower
volume 3 number 4 U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION

Bonding Program Goes Nationwide

No American worker need find himself barred from a job just because he can't be bonded.

The Department of Labor's Manpower Administration, after a trial of more than 4 years, has authorized the 2,200 local public employment offices in the United States, Guam, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands to furnish Government-paid bonds to anyone who finds a bond standing between himself and a job.

The manpower bonding program started small, as an experiment, in 1966 in four cities—Los Angeles, New York, Chicago, and Washington, D.C. Ex-convicts, law offenders, and prison inmates who received manpower job skill training often could not get jobs because of their "records." Even skilled workers with such problems as poor credit records often found themselves unable to get commercial bonding needed to hold some jobs.

The experimental program spread slowly, under cautious controls, to 51 cities and six entire States—California, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Illinois, and Missouri—by the end of 1970.

From the beginning, results were startling. The mere availability of bonding caused many employers to say "to heck with the bond, I'll hire him anyhow." Employment service personnel began placing nonbondable workers with employers they formerly would not have contacted. Employers began reexamining their customary hiring and bonding standards.

A study in California and New York found that in about 8 out of 9 times the employer dropped his bonding requirement when he found Federal bonding was available to the applicant.

During the testing period, 2,645 persons were bonded in amounts ranging from $500 to $10,000. Only 35 claims were paid by the bonding firm (United Bonding Company of Indiana) which had contracted to issue the bonds for $42 a year per $1,000. The default rate was so exceptionally low that the bonding company after 3 years reduced its rate by two-thirds —to $16.80 per year per $1,000.

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COVER: New Haven high school students in laboratory technician class. Photograph by John Dommers.

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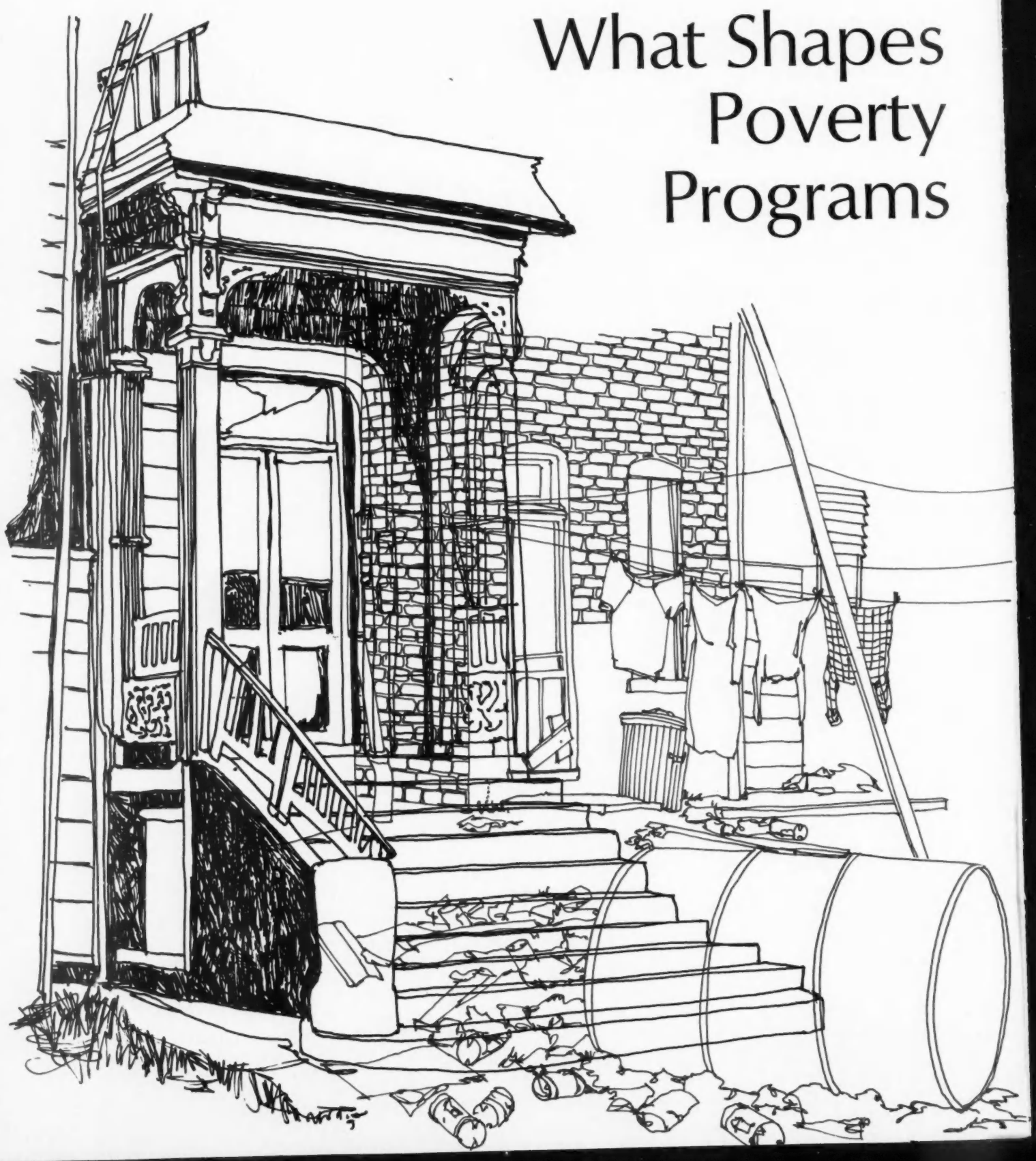
What Shapes Poverty Programs



Preconceptions Play Crucial Role and May Outweigh Client Needs

By JESSE E. GORDON

The objectives of programs for the disadvantaged and the techniques they use are products of a number of factors which operate even before the first client has walked through the door. The three most important factors are:

- The way disadvantagement is defined.
- The assumptions made about the causes of the problem.
- The kind of organization set up to deal with it.

Taken together these factors account for most of a program's operating style, decisions, and problem solutions. They must be taken into consideration if a program is to be designed to do its thing effectively.

At the outset let me admit to two biases.

First, programs for the disadvantaged are not designed according to people's needs and characteristics but rather according to how these characteristics are defined and interpreted. Program planners do not know anything about the reality "out there." They know only their interpretations of it. These interpretations owe at least as much to political, sociological, and organizational factors affecting those who do the interpreting as they do to the reality "out there."

Second, disadvantaged people are psychologically no different from anyone else, at least as far as employability is concerned. Some are more talented than others, some are harder workers, and all work harder sometimes than they do other times. The laws of learning, motivation, and behavior change apply to the disadvantaged in exactly the same ways as they apply to anyone else.

The huge mythology built up about disadvantaged personalities is mostly nonsense. Mayor Carl Stokes of Cleveland spends more of his time acting like his fellow political administrators than he does like a Black Panther or a black janitor. It is pernicious for all disadvantaged people to be looked at as if they are some kind of anthropological freaks, some peculiar native tribe with funny magical customs.

The very act of defining a group of people as psychologically different (and deficient), with reference to middle class norms and to the needs of an industrial economy, is itself disadvantaging. It is difficult to engage in ordinary human conversation with people so defined. Of course that is the way poor minority members do get treated, and that may be what makes many feel increasingly alienated from the rest of society.

Dr. Gordon is professor of psychology and social work at the University of Michigan and codirector of the university's Program in Manpower Studies, which is a research and development project funded by the Manpower Administration.

One of the earliest definitions of disadvantagement was biological. People were thought to be poor because they were innately inferior. The colonization of the New World was a reaction against such a definition. America's early settlers viewed poverty as a sociopolitical problem to be resolved by a colonial revolution against an oppressive regime. It would be followed by the building of a better State, giving each person a share of political power based on the ballot through which the distribution of wealth could be controlled. So in our early days we implicitly defined poverty as a sociopolitical problem.

However, the situation is different today. We accept the judgments of experts of recognized standing who articulate, publicize, and interpret the nature of our problems. The recognized experts are usually those who have achieved high status and high visibility within major professional, educational, governmental, and social institutions. Such experts therefore have a stake in how a problem is defined. Thus it is quite natural for them to define problems in ways that are least dangerous to their positions in their own institutions. They prefer to avoid definitions in terms of the structure and operations of their institutions. So they define problems as psychological, as being problems inside individuals, instead of talking about the ways in which their organizations may victimize, short-change, ignore, or exploit some sections of the population.

Title, Content Imply Different Definitions

Here is a case in point. The title of the Economic Opportunity Act implies an economic definition of poverty. But the contents imply a psychological definition because the act's provisions are concerned with ways of changing the behavior of poor people by putting them in work camps, school enrichment programs, and the like.

Little in the act is directed at prohibiting disadvantaging institutions from continuing to pay poverty wages for work which everyone agrees somebody has to do. The basic notion of the act is that you change poor people, and they in turn might change institutional structures. In other words, the act assumes that the poor lack certain qualifications for influencing institutions, rather than that institutions lack responsiveness to the poor.

Definitions of social problems are often built upon the specification of some subgroup such as the poor, blacks, Chicanos, or farmers. One consequence is that such a group becomes conscious of itself as distinct and sees itself as being separated from the rest of American society, which then becomes the enemy or the uncaring exploiter. Programs are designed for that special

group alone, leaving social structures and operations for all others unchanged.

In the early 1960's we were all concerned that regular school programs were not sufficient for the gifted child. The result was a great increase in preschool enrichment programs, including the rise of Montessori schools, for gifted children. Of course, this left the school program for the nongifted essentially unchanged. Now that we are concerned with the disadvantaged child we are getting almost the identical development—preschool enrichment programs, again emphasizing Montessori-like methods.

When the same institution devises the same solution to two problems which seem so different, something is wrong. The recurrent problem is being hidden by an attempt to project the problem of institutional failure into minority groups. Had the earlier problem of gifted children been defined as unresponsiveness of the school to the uniqueness of all children, then the entire school program might have changed.

A second consequence of defining problems in terms of special groups is to pit the average against the special group, producing social divisiveness. When nearly all the special manpower programs are aimed solely at the poor, the near poor who also lack opportunity for skill training inevitably become resentful. We could have defined the problem of poverty as one of maldistribution of wealth, which would make it a society-wide problem. The upper 5 percent of the population has 20 percent of the wealth, and middle class people pay a disproportionately larger share of taxes than the rich. The maldistribution of wealth is a problem of the middle class because they are among its victims.

But poverty is not their problem. Poverty is poor people's problem. This definition isolates and encapsulates it as a problem of a minority segment of the population which lacks sufficient power to deal with it alone. And by the same token, the definition creates a much larger group made up of those who are neutral and unconcerned about the problem because it does not touch them directly.

Let it simply be said that how a person defines the problem of the disadvantaged determines the outlines of the solutions he will provide. Imagine an almost infinite range of options available for dealing with a problem. As soon as a person chooses a definition, he automatically selects out a subset of options. If his definition is economic, he will deal with the range of available economic solutions, eliminating all other potential solutions.

But the problem of poverty is more complex than any single

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definition and any single type of program. An expert can identify some segment of the total problem he can help solve, but he must not assume that singlehandedly his field of expertise is enough to solve the whole thing.

That does not mean he can cop out. While doing his own thing, he must accept some responsibility for making sure that others are doing their things also. Unless he does, a large segment of the disadvantaged community will suspect him of being part of a cool-out mechanism. They know the problem is more complex than his solution. He will be viewed as an agent of a system which aims to keep them disadvantaged, and his inadequate efforts will be seen only as icing to hide a stale cake. If he is to be creditable among the disadvantaged, he must demonstrate his efforts are more than simply a way of earning a living based on other people's problems.

He must show dedication to the solution of the problem by using his efforts as citizen, politician, and voter, and as a member of influential social and professional groups. He cannot spend his work time, for example, teaching vocational skills to the disadvantaged and then cooperate with a union which bars minority applicants from apprenticeships or support a pattern of segregated schools based on segregated neighborhoods.

The second set of considerations influencing program builders are the assumptions they make about the causes and maintenance of disadvantagement. Basically there are two views. The first locates the causes of disadvantaged behavior deep in the past psychic histories of poor people, while the other sees that behavior as appropriate response to contemporary environmental conditions.

Many studies of the disadvantaged attempt to describe their psychological characteristics. For example, a study by Walter Mischel "showed" that delinquent boys lack the "ability" to delay a gratification. He gave delinquents and nondelinquents an experimental task to perform and then offered them five cent chocolate bars as rewards. However, he said he didn't have enough to go around and offered 25 cent chocolate bars to those willing to wait till he came back the following week. Fewer delinquents (who are more likely to be disadvantaged) chose to wait.

Few who used the results of that early study stopped to think that perhaps the delinquent boys, as a result of their experiences, simply did not believe that the experimenter would come back with the 25 cent candy bar. Their behavior could be interpreted as a response to customary features of their world, rather than to a psychological defect in their characters.

Another study is an example of the tendency of psychologists and sociologists to locate the causes of behavior in people's early life history. In recent years there has been much talk about the nonverbal poor. The English sociologist Basil Bernstein received a great deal of publicity for his theory that poor people permanently acquire a disadvantaged language pattern because of early childhood experiences characteristic of poor families. One of my doctoral students, Jim Ledvinka, decided to test this notion. He recorded the interviews of black jobseekers in employment service offices in a large midwestern city. Each subject was interviewed once by a black interviewer and once by a white interviewer.

Ledvinka found that the very same black jobseekers used wider vocabularies, longer and more complex sentences, and more complex verbs with black interviewers. Blacks are more up tight with white interviewers like Bernstein and the result is a difference in their language behavior. Bernstein's mistake was to ascribe their impaired linguistic performance to childhood training instead of to the situation in which he and his research associates were observing the linguistic behavior.

'Proven' Characteristics Hard to Dispel

That brings us to the heart of a very important matter: There are considerable data like Ledvinka's which clearly indicate that many of the traits ascribed to the disadvantaged are more likely to be responses to the research procedures used by white professional scientists on the scientists' own turf. And once the mythology of disadvantaged characteristics gets "proved" by the scientists, the disadvantaged become even more disadvantaged through the spread of scientific theories about their psychological "deficiencies." This process has led to the demand by blacks that middle class whites leave the study of black people to black people. (Of course, the politics of inter-racial one-upsmanship also calls for blacks to then accuse white scientists of ignoring minority groups, but that is a different matter.)

Let us examine one more assumption, this one based on motivation. Many programs describe themselves as trying to motivate the disadvantaged. But to ask anyone to be motivated in the absence of an incentive which he can achieve does not make sense.

What incentives are available to blacks in education? The evidence on the track system in public schools indicates that poor minority children get assigned to lower tracks no matter what their level of performance or ability. Recent data collected at the University of Michigan show that while there is

often a high correlation between level of education and income among white workers, the correlation for black workers below the bachelor's degree level is approximately zero in some industries. In other words, in many kinds of work a person with 3 years of college is not likely to be earning any more than one who dropped out of elementary school, if he is black.

What are the incentives in industry? Far too many people are disadvantaged as a result of being employed in low wage, often marginal, industries. Such employers prefer a high labor turnover to keep wages low, prevent unionization, and maintain an elastic payroll able to adjust rapidly to changes in the demand for the companies' goods. Their operations prevent employees from achieving job and income security and upward advancement.

A recent study by the Chicago Urban League found that when disadvantaged black workers switch jobs they almost always do so to achieve a higher income. Promotion ladders within their own jobs are generally restricted or closed to them. My own research among 50 employers of hard-core workers in Chicago showed almost none of the employers reported an inability to do the work as a major problem. Their most frequent complaint was a lack of loyalty to the company among the disadvantaged. Given the absence of promotional incentives and the low wages paid, this lack of loyalty runs directly counter to charges of lack of motivation; loyalty to a low wage dead-end job is the opposite of ambition.

This evidence suggests that disadvantagement is more likely maintained by lack of incentives than lack of motivation. But a sizable group of employers is opposed to modifying incentives and reducing poverty. Poverty maintains a large supply of workers for low wage and marginal industries which could not exist if these industries had to pay above poverty wages and provide promotional and income incentives. This has been made even clearer by resistance within States to raising State minimum wages, and the continued refusal to include farmworkers under minimum wage legislation, which would reduce the frequency of poverty. Thus most programs do not aim at modifying incentives and those that do encounter little success. What, then, is the point of accusing the poor of "lack of motivation" except to shift the blame from institutions to the poor themselves?

One result of the assumption that the poor are disadvantaged because of psychological characteristics may be seen in the contrast between the GI bill of rights and the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA). Both were designed to help a large number of people develop salable vocational skills. The GI bill permitted anyone who qualified to enroll in any education program of his own choosing, provided it met certain minimum standards, and the Government picked up the tab and paid the veteran a stipend.

Under MDTA, those eligible are given relatively little choice as to where they will be trained and in what field. They have to take what is available in special vocational schools or skills centers or do without. Consequently, World War II veterans, for whom institutions competed, were treated as customers, even though many of those veterans were also (but incidentally) poor. MDTA participants, on the other hand, are treated like welfare cases.

The last set of program factors to consider are organizational ones, including the program's sponsorship, its constituency, sources of power, personnel, and the environment in which it operates.

Different kinds of program sponsors have different kinds of traditions, ways of doing things, and structures which influence their operations. For example, a program could increase the sense of competence, pride, and ethnic identity among black enrollees by posting pictures of black leaders and by having copies of black liberation newspapers available. But many State bureaucracies simply will not permit use of these program techniques. Only after he was dead was it possible to put up pictures of Martin Luther King in many State and Federal offices.

Sponsors, Not Clients, Are Constituents

Suppose a programer wanted in his remedial education class to stimulate criticism of elementary schools for failure to teach basic skills. His notion might be that an aroused public could force the schools to improve, so that interventions could shift from trying to patch up damaged kids to preventing their being damaged. How likely is it such a program could be run under the sponsorship of a local school system? The point is clear: The nature of a program's sponsorship limits its range of objectives.

The second organizational factor is the program's constituency, whom it must please to stay in business. For most programs, the constituents are not the clients and their community but the programs' sponsors and their sources of funds. The result is that very few programs design their efforts specifically to please clients, whose needs are often quite different from those of the sponsors and funding agents. Of course, client communities can close a program down, as they have done from time to time in various cities. So programs do have to please

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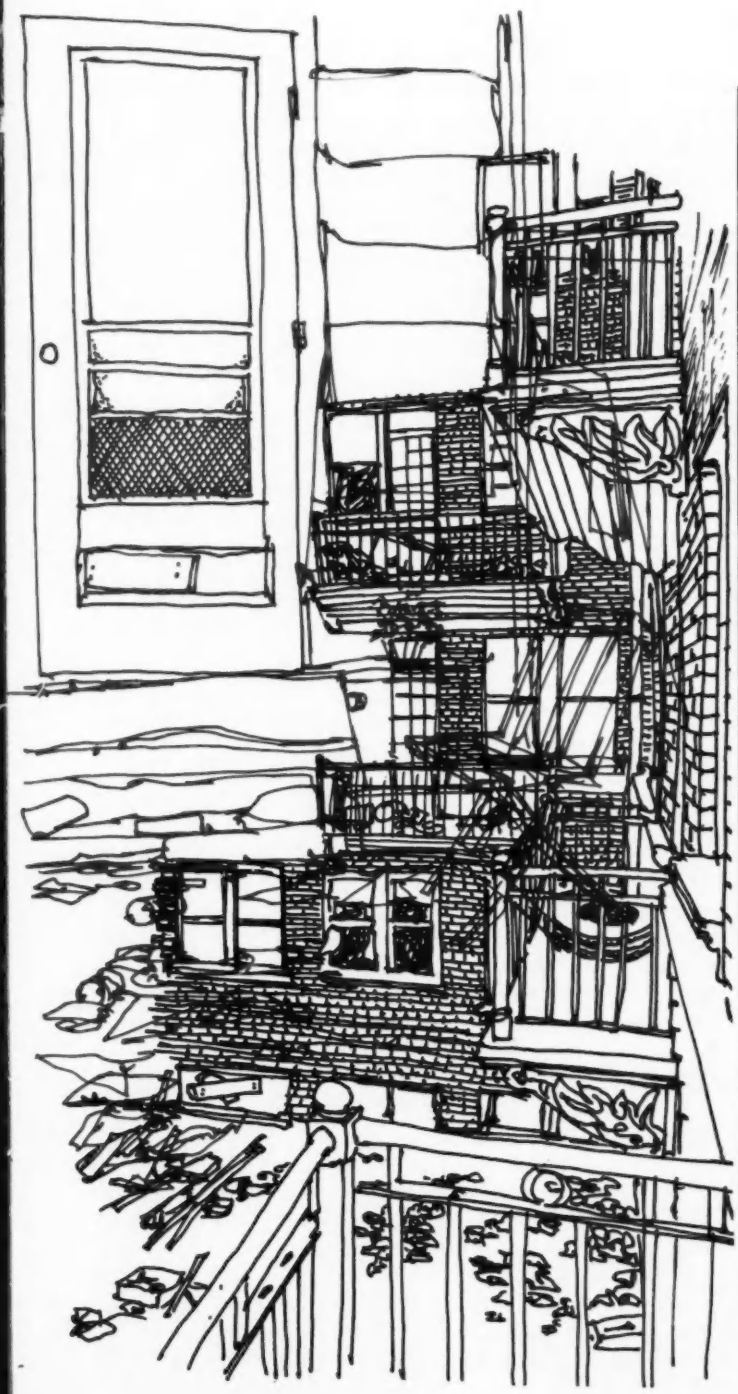

their clients enough at least to be tolerated. But once tolerated, they can stay in the community's good graces by avoiding too-outrageous exploitation because most programs have a monopoly and poor clients are used to accepting minimal services or doing without.

In years past, the State employment services provided a good example of an agency whose program was designed to please its constituents, the employers. Services were provided to employers such as free aptitude testing and screening out of potential employees, but little help was given the unemployed. The poverty programs have brought about a massive change in State employment services. Employers are no longer their main constituency. Unfortunately, the structure of the employment services does not provide any points at which the client community can exercise leverage and thus replace the employer as a constituency. Without either kind of outside constituency, employment services are now controlled exclusively by internal groups: State and Federal administrators and the employment service workers themselves.

Of course programs have to give lip service to the ideology of meeting client needs. Many programs get around the resulting inconsistency by taking the stance that agency staffs, as professionals, are in a better position to articulate what the community needs than the community itself. This enables the program to give relatively little weight to inputs from either clients or employers in the community, while preserving its conception of itself as meeting community needs.

Related to the question of constituency are questions which have to do with a program's source and amount of power and influence. One kind of influence is based upon the recognition of the expertise of the program's staff or leadership by those it is trying to influence. (Unfortunately, inner-city black youth often do not recognize white counselors as experts in ghetto life, so professionals can't use their "expertise" as a basis for influence.) Or the program might use the personal influence of an admired individual—much as the astronauts have been sent on official visits to foreign nations. A third basis of influence is the ability to control resources, either through political or economic power.

Which of these sources of influence a program has available to it will determine to a great extent the technique that the program will use. A program relying on expertise must prove its effectiveness publicly to maintain its position—if it has proof available. However, if it has political power, it need not try to prove expertise and can instead get support from elected officials. A program using as its influence source an admired

leader must emphasize publicity as a major technique for making the leader's influence operative.

So the kind of power available will influence what the program will aim at. The same is true of the amount of power. For example, changing Federal legislation to affect the hiring decisions of employers is not a feasible objective for a local community-based agency with only limited power.

The personnel available to do the work of a program also influence the program's objectives and techniques. If workers are not available with the necessary technical skills in job analysis, industrial engineering, and cost effectiveness evaluation, a program cannot be aimed at restructuring jobs in the local economy. The program lacks the expertise to redesign jobs. A program will do what its personnel know how to do, or it risks failure. For example, it would be foolish for an all-white professional staff to operate a program to increase black pride through the use of role modeling techniques. White professionals simply cannot serve as role models of black achievement.

The last organizational factor is the environment in which a program operates. Environments might be characterized as falling between extremes of turbulence and tranquility. A bureaucratic structure, having clear lines of authority, a set of formalized rules covering the work to be done and the relations between employees and supervisors, and a flow of information and communications which goes from the top downward, is best adapted to an unchanging environment.

The bureaucratic structure is inappropriate to deal with a turbulent or nonstandardized environment. Then reliance must be placed on the individual judgments of the people who are actually face to face with the unpredictable events to be handled. They cannot be placed at the bottom of an authority structure of administrators. Human relations tasks, such as those typically performed by manpower programs for the disadvantaged, require a structure which can best be described as collegial.

Authority is shared among workers, rather than going downward from those at the top, who are most removed from direct contact with individual clients. Further, collegial organizations are flexible and adaptable, in contrast to a bureaucratic structure which cannot respond promptly and differently to individual differences. Because many manpower programs are sponsored by public, tax-supported agencies, they tend to have bureaucratic structures which are therefore inconsistent with the kind of work to be performed by the agencies.

Programs handle this inconsistency in a variety of ways. One is by operating like a collegial group in fact, despite the official description of a bureaucratic agency structure on paper. Unfortunately, this is an unstable solution, because it leaves the agency open to charges of malfeasance, poor administration, or corruption. A second solution is one in which the bureaucracy is maintained while doing its best to overlook, ignore, or simply not deal with the nonstandardized, irregular, and unique problems presented by its clients. In effect, it tries to treat all clients alike, and ignores individual differences or the unique aspects of events which are not covered by the rules and standard procedures.

Examples of this solution are orientation programs for the disadvantaged as part of Work Incentive and Concentrated Employment Programs. These orientation programs tend to operate on fixed curricula, including grooming, personal hygiene, how to deal with job interviews, how to spend money wisely, and so on—as if all disadvantaged clients need instruction in each of these areas. It is often quite ludicrous to see neatly dressed young unemployed workers engaging in group counseling on proper grooming.

In sum, programs to aid the disadvantaged usually are not grounded in the needs of the clients to be served. They reflect the views and needs of the people and organizations who fund and administer them. □

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Mobilizing Jobs for Veterans

As a group, Vietnam veterans are better educated and have better job skills than nonveterans of the same age. Yet, their unemployment rate is higher. Why?

Some experts say many veterans just don't know how to find jobs. Others say some employers don't want them. A third view is that some veterans are content to lie around for a few weeks after discharge and draw unemployment compensation. Others blame the economic slowdown, which they say has hit veterans harder.

Whatever the reasons, the Federal Government has opened a drive to close the job gap for veterans. President Nixon's Jobs For Veterans Program is bringing business, labor, government, and veterans organizations together to help former servicemen find employment more quickly.

President Nixon handed Jobs For Veterans a fourfold mission:

- Increasing national awareness of the veteran as a job candidate.

- Fully using existing programs that can link the veteran with job and training opportunities.
- Stimulating the formation of action groups at the State and local levels to marshal available resources.
- Encouraging public and private employers to actively seek out and hire veterans.

The problem is clear enough. About 1 million veterans a year are returning to civilian life, more than double the number separated 5 years ago. And with the continued redeployment of troops from Vietnam and further manpower reductions by the Armed Forces, an increasing number of veterans will be leaving military service in the months and years to come.

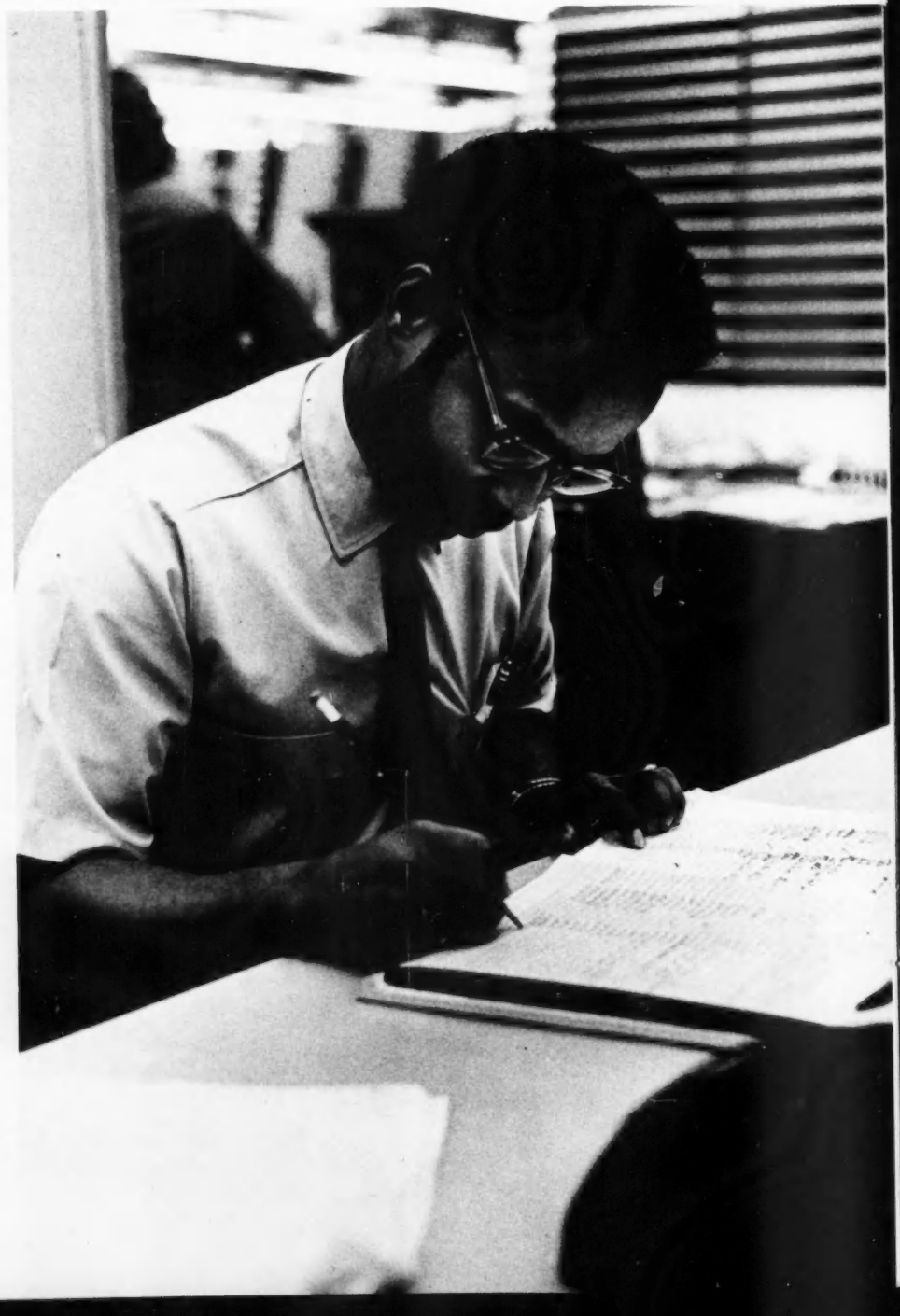
Until the last part of 1969, returning veterans entered an expanding economy. Then the economy turned down and unemployment began to rise. Competition for jobs became tougher.

At first glance, Vietnam era veterans seem well equipped to hold their own in this competition. Most officers are college graduates, while 83 percent of the enlisted men have at least a high school education. And about 80 percent of the enlisted veterans and 95 percent of the officers acquire a skill in service which is related to or can be converted to a civilian occupation.

Yet the unemployment rate of male veterans 20 to 29 years old in the last 3 months of 1970 was 7.9 percent compared to 6.8 percent for nonveterans of the same age and 4.9 percent for men of all ages.

The veteran, of course, starts out with an initial handicap. The simple fact that he has been separated from the service usually means that he is unemployed. Only a fortunate minority are able to step directly into civilian jobs. The rest flounder for a bit, trying to determine in which direction to strike out.

"Many veterans coming back home today are undecided about what to do on their return," said Joseph F. Welsh, Veterans Employment Representative for Pennsylvania. "They're not sure whether they should go into a factory job or into education or training or something else. Some boys need in-depth counseling because they had no jobs before going into service—many of them went in straight from high school—or they had one job temporarily, maybe a menial job in a factory, and they have no desire to return."



A few weeks after his discharge from the Navy, Michael Hendrix files his initial claim for unemployment insurance with Virginia Employment Commission (VEC) interviewer John N. Howard, Sr.

Former sailor Herbert Hicks, now a scheduler at a General Electric plant in Richmond, tackles some paper work at his desk. Hicks was referred to the job by the VEC.

Even some who learned trades are handicapped. "They got in the service and learned a military type job and can't relate it without some help to a civilian job," he said.

Welsh's counterpart in Texas, William A. Hazlewood, agrees. "The main problem is transferring military skills and education attainments into civilian occupations," he said. "Sometimes it's difficult to get employers to accept military experience at face value. Too many people have the idea that in the military jobs are structured so people don't have to work too hard. It's an erroneous assumption. Any large civilian organization has some goof-offs."

Veterans without occupational training or experience are in trouble in a tight job market. They are competing with too many experienced people. "When our firm posts a vacancy for a semiskilled position, we may get 60 or 70 applicants," said a Baltimore industrial personnel officer. "Most of these are already experienced and need no costly and time-consuming training. To be perfectly honest, the only reason we would hire an untrained veteran is out of a sense of duty. But when you measure that against productivity, especially in times like these, you often have no choice. It's a problem. But it's also a matter of our own survival."

Many of these inexperienced young veterans, particularly unmarried ones living at home, don't mind coasting a while. Unlike nonveterans just entering the labor market, they can, depending on the State in which they live, draw 22 to 39 weeks of unemployment compensation of $30 to $76 a week. According to a report in late 1970 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, this factor obviously influences some veterans in their jobseeking activities. It offers them a paid "breather" and financial support while they take their time about finding the kind of job or training they want. "We have a lot of them not entering the labor market the first 6 weeks they get out," said one U.S. Department of Labor field expert. "They want to relax and spend their money."

Technically, a veteran's unemployment benefits can be cut off if he resists too diligently efforts of his State employment service to place him in a job or training. But as a practical matter, according to one State Veterans Employment Representative, the veteran is not nudged too hard, at least for a few weeks. "We think he needs a reasonable amount of time to make up his mind," he said. "Luckily most of them we see are ready to go to work."

A commonsense factor is at work too. Many veterans want to attend college on the GI bill but must wait weeks, even months, till the beginning of the next semester. An employment service officer is reluctant to refer such men to jobs, while so many other people are out of work. And, of course, employers are not usually willing to hire men who will be only temporary employees. This tends to inflate slightly the unemployment figures for veterans since the rate includes those waiting entry into school under the GI bill and other training programs.

Many Don't Know Rights

Changes in the economy have hit veterans hard for two reasons. Many have gravitated to jobs in defense industries, which have been laying off workers. Hazlewood said this was a real problem in Texas. "Fort Worth, Dallas, Houston, all east Texas has a lot of plants devoted solely to supplying defense needs," he said. "At Greenville, LTV closed down and it was the biggest employer in town. Most of the workers were veterans." Other veterans have suffered from general layoffs because they lack seniority and thus are the first to go.

Hazlewood and Welsh agree that lack of effective communication also hampers efforts to move veterans off the unemployment rolls. Many of them apparently have never heard of a wide variety of government programs designed to put them at the head of the line in the scramble for jobs and training opportunities. "Many veterans don't know what is available to them," said Welsh.

"They should be familiar with the things due them," said Hazlewood, who noted that the State employment services, the Defense Department, the Veterans Administration, and other public and private organizations continually bring relevant information to them. "They're well briefed," he said. "But I doubt that some of them listen."

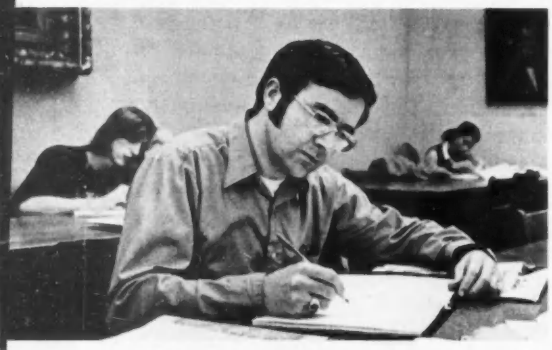
Others know their rights but run into barriers trying to exercise them. Welsh notes that many veterans suffer a long delay in trying to enter college under the

GI bill, either because the colleges are filled or because of scheduling problems in taking college entrance tests. Meanwhile, they find jobs, get married, and give up further schooling. "I know 15 boys this has happened to in the last year," he said. "The Nation is losing something here." His solution: "There ought to be a veterans preference for colleges."

Many former servicemen are already exercising their rights. The Veterans Administration said in February that within 55 months of enactment of the latest GI bill, 32.7 percent of all Vietnam veterans had entered training and education programs. (The comparable figure for World War II ex-servicemen was 37.8 percent, for Korean vets 35.9.)

A key factor in helping veterans is for the State employment services to do some fence-mending with employers, one Veterans Employment Representative indicated. "The State employment service system needs more job openings," he said. "They have neglected the employers and lost employer acceptance in the past 4 or 5 years because of the emphasis on helping the hard-core unemployed. They must expose the veterans to more jobs, get employers to look at them."

Labor Secretary J. D. Hodgson believes that what many veterans—especially those seeking their first job—need most is "linkages with the labor market. They do not know the process of job finding and job referral and how to go about getting job training as much as those who have never left the private sector," he said.



After being discharged from the Air Force in 1965, Tom Madden attended a broadcasting school and then did broadcasting and newspaper work. He discovered, however, that to really move ahead he needed a degree so he enrolled in George Washington University under the GI bill. He is due to graduate in June and plans to go into journalism. Here he works on a research report in the university library.

"As you can see from the minimal number of veterans that exhaust their full range of unemployment benefits (22,300 in fiscal 1970), the problem is not so much getting a job for them, but getting a job in a timely fashion of a kind that is responsive to their interests."

The solution, Hodgson said, "is to tie them to the labor market mechanisms, to speed things up, to make employers aware of the existence, of the availability of these people. Vaguely, in the back of their minds, employers know servicemen are coming out, and there are probably some being released in their particular area, but they don't have any idea of the type and quality and urgency of the need.

"Through employer cooperation and through the activities of the State employment services we intend to speed and expedite this whole process."

Letters Sent to Employers

The vehicle chosen to speed things up is the Jobs For Veterans Program, started in late 1970 as a joint effort of the Departments of Labor, Commerce, and Defense, and the Veterans Administration. National Chairman is James F. Oates, Jr., a Chicago lawyer and former board chairman of the Equitable Life Assurance Society. Oates in February broadened participation in the drive by appointing 100 leaders from government, business, and labor, including seven cabinet members, to the Jobs For Veterans national advisory committee.

Seeking to marshal employment and training resources at the Federal, State, and local levels, the Jobs For Veterans Program has opened a nationwide, multimedia campaign to spur the hiring of returning veterans. The planned 2-year program will be extended should the need remain.

As part of the campaign, letters signed by both the Secretaries of Labor and Commerce were mailed in early January to 900,000 employers asking their support by hiring veterans or providing training opportunities for them. By February 1, several thousand employers had returned interest reply cards, and 96 percent were interested in providing jobs or training opportunities to veterans. These cards are forwarded to the State employment service and Veterans Administration offices in the employer's area for immediate follow-up.

To speed up services to veterans, some 335 additional positions have been allocated to the State employment service offices by the U.S. Department of Labor. These added slots have enabled the States to provide strengthened services to veterans, primarily in each of the 55 largest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas where the heaviest veteran workload—some 60 percent—is handled.

In addition, a letter from President Nixon was mailed to all State governors and to the mayors of the 153 cities with populations of 100,000 or more requesting that veterans employment task forces be established to deal with the problem on the State and local levels. By February 1, 18 cities had begun establishing such groups. The Secretary of Labor contacted the presidents of 187 national and international unions and four national veterans organizations requesting their cooperation in the program.

A nationwide advertising campaign, developed by the Advertising Council, was kicked off in January to alert employers to the problems of returning veterans, and to alert veterans to the opportunities and services available to them. Community service organizations, religious groups, trade associations, county agents, and other resources were contacted and given suggestions concerning their roles in the overall program.

As part of organized labor's response, the Human Resources Development Institute (HRDI) of the AFL-CIO has developed a 1-year demonstration project with Labor Department funds to provide person-to-person employment assistance at four military reception and processing centers in California. HRDI will have a staff person at each separation center. His first task will be twofold—to brief each returning veteran about job opportunities in his hometown and to get some idea of the serviceman's skills and job preference.

He will also make sure the veteran has the name and telephone number of the HRDI staff representative in the city closest to where the veteran lives. Or, if there is no HRDI office in the area, the serviceman will be given the phone number of

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Hoping to land an apprenticeship, recent veteran Peter Huntley takes the General Aptitude Test Battery at the Virginia Employment Commission office in Richmond. Looking on is VEC test administrator Mabel Turner.

the closest AFL-CIO Central Labor Council office. The HRDI man at the base will then forward all the pertinent data about each serviceman to the office which the veteran will be contacting. The program, which began in February, will reach about 50 percent of all veterans returning through the three processing centers.

A similar program to operate overseas is being developed by the Labor Department's Veterans Employment Service in cooperation with the Defense Department and the Veterans Administration. Teams of representatives of each agency will be stationed in Vietnam, Okinawa, and Germany to brief servicemen preparing to return to the U.S. for discharge on education, training, and employment programs for veterans and similar matters.

In addition to these special efforts, the Department of Labor provides continuing assistance to veterans on a day-to-day basis through its affiliated State employment services. Veterans receive priority in job placement and other manpower services as well as preference in referral to Labor Department manpower training programs. In 1968, a program was established under which servicemen about to leave the military fill out forms which are channeled through the Labor Department to the local State employment service offices in the areas where they plan to settle. Veterans also receive priority in hiring for all Federal and most State civil service jobs.

The Labor Department's Office of Veterans Reemployment Rights administers those statutory provisions of the Selective Service Act of 1967 which entitle eligible veterans to reemployment with the employers for whom they were working when they left to enter military service. The law entitles veterans to reinstatement in their old jobs with the seniority, status, and rate of pay they would have attained had their employment continued without interruption. □

health careers and high schools

A lot of people talk about acute shortages of manpower in health fields. High schools around the Nation are beginning to adopt broad-gauge programs to do something about it.

In New Haven, Conn., and Baltimore, Md., for example, courses that lead students into health occupations have become an important part of high school curricula. In both cities there is also a cooperative effort to link high schools with colleges and medical institutions to create many different paths for youth into health jobs.

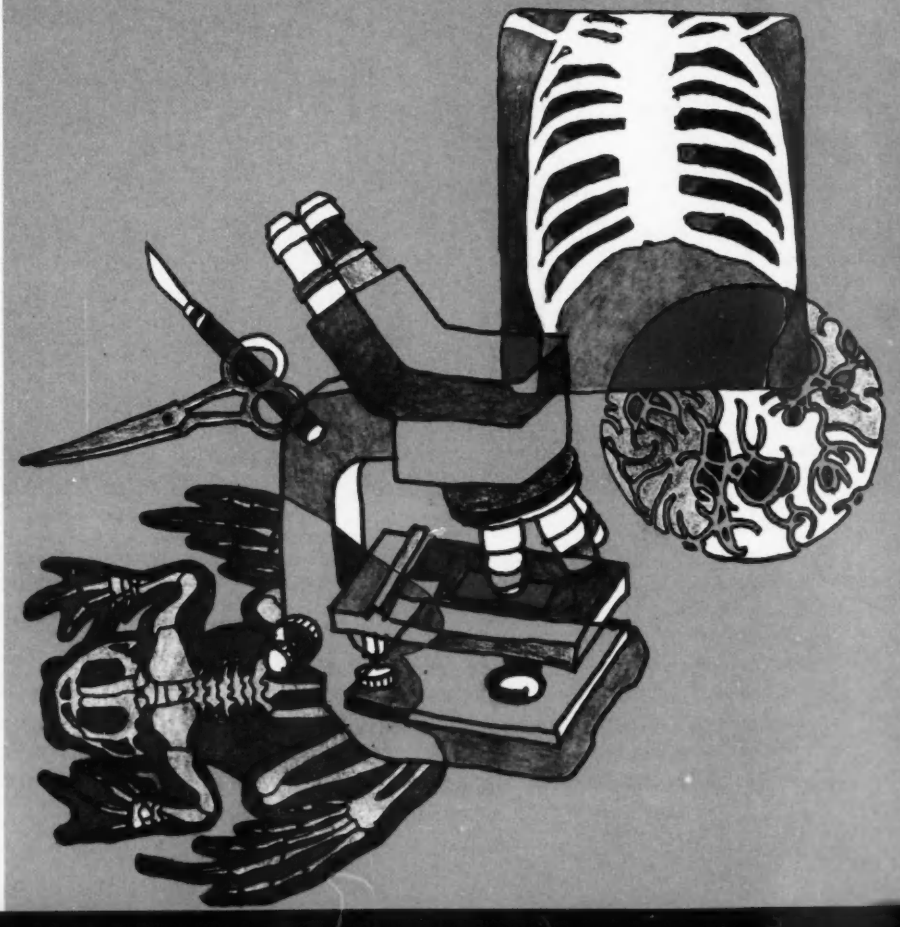
New Haven's program began several years ago when a 2-year medical laboratory technology course was first offered to juniors and seniors in a city high school. All three city high schools now offer this course plus a 1-year animal laboratory technology course for seniors. One school has started a 1-year X-ray technology course, and another is starting a prenursing course next fall.

The health careers courses grew out of a search for ways to keep under-achieving youngsters at their studies. According to John McGavack, Jr., an assistant superintendent of schools and the program's chief architect, "We had a great many youngsters with poor academic records, no interest in school, and no idea of the relationship that school studies bear to what they look upon as the real world. A good many were in trouble with school authorities and with the gendarmes in the city.

Reading Skills Enhanced

"But these kids are not dopes. They are ingenious and energetic, especially when it comes to finding ways to foil 'the system'—they succeed at this year after year. We tried to harness their abilities."

His initial effort was not in the health sector. He started a 2-year basic electronics laboratory course, held 2 hours a day for 14 students with poor school records. Most of the students read 2 or 3 years below grade level in academic subjects; however, they soon read on or above grade level in electronics although the course content was technical and specialized. Their interest in the subject



This article is based on an idea submitted by Elliot A. Segal, coordinator of allied health manpower for Yale-New Haven Medical Center, and Dr. Carter L. Marshall, Jr., associate professor of community medicine at Mount Sinai School of Medicine.

seemed to spur their reading progress.

"Many of the kids came to school only to take lab, then cut other classes," McGavack remembers. "We had to convince them that getting along in other subjects would help them in electronics after finishing school. Before long most of them did better work across the board. They found a goal—a marketable skill. Most important, they began to feel that in the eyes of the school they were somebodies instead of nobodies." Each New Haven high school now has two electronics labs.

The health occupations courses came next. It was a natural choice for vocational studies because New Haven's medical institutions—such as the Yale University School of Medicine and the Yale-New Haven Hospital—not only are big employers but also offer tremendous variety in jobs as a result of their teaching, research, clinical, and hospital functions.

Medical School Consulted

When he started the first medical laboratory technology course, McGavack consulted faculty and staff at these institutions. Did they think a high school could train youngsters so that they could walk into any medical or industrial laboratory and be ready for work? They did. But they had one proviso: Teachers must be medical technicians, not people with education majors and a smattering of medical technology.

Although this advice may ring with the sound of reason, it calls for crossing trade lines. McGavack points out that educators may object to hiring technicians who are not qualified as public school teachers. He handled the problem by placing the burden on the school system. "If you can find someone in your pool of certified teachers who is also a qualified medical technician, well and good," was his approach. "If not, we'll do it my way." He had community support for his moves as a result of his success with the electronics course.

In the end, McGavack got most of his teachers his way—by raiding hospitals. Four of the six technicians now working are black. This pleases McGavack because about half of the secondary school population and a heavy proportion of students in the pretechnical courses are black.

Getting equipment was another problem. McGavack sought the real thing—like $500 microscopes, and not toys—with the result that costs for each medical technology laboratory came to about $18,000 (there are now six of these laboratories, two to a high school). He failed to get vocational education funds to pay for them.

"The argument against us," McGavack says, "was that such courses belong in the technical high school. This was the same answer we got earlier when we started electronics. Our argument is that the technical school creams off a few people and fails to reach the mass of kids who need exposure to jobs and skill training." Money for laboratories came from State aid for disadvantaged children and from Federal funds for educationally deprived children. McGavack also used these sources for the electronics labs, plus some Ford Foundation money for a pilot course.

To shape the medical laboratory course, the schools hired the chairman of the division of science and allied health programs at Quinnipiac College as a consultant. The course includes: Orientation to the laboratory, human physiology, hematology, urinalysis, chemistry of body functions, immunohematology, microbiology, parasitology, serology, and histology.

As in all of the New Haven pretechnical courses, students are chosen on the basis of recommendations from teachers and interviews with guidance counselors and the head of the science department. Preference is given to youngsters who do not see themselves as college material and who have academic or disciplinary problems.

What some teenagers look forward to most is becoming seniors and taking animal lab. In this course students in each high school work with guinea pigs, rabbits, rats, mice, and hamsters. They learn to keep the animal colonies healthy and study anatomy, physiology, breeding, handling techniques, and the like. They also study animal illness and learn to destroy culprit diseases.

At one school the teacher, Jeanne Vitelli, likes to work with additional species. Her students tend old and new world monkeys, boa constrictors, a python, an indigo snake, iguanas, turtles, chickens, and a parrot. Mrs. Vitelli looks on each new animal as a learning experience. She says the diets, handling, and care teach youngsters much about variation in animal behavior and requirements.

Vocational courses are expensive compared to subjects learned entirely from books. It has cost about $300,000 to install the pretechnical studies, not including salaries for 16 teachers which are absorbed by the regular Board of Education budget.

But on the other side of the ledger are important gains. A study of more than 300 students in the first pretechnical classes shows that about 60 percent got better grades in all subjects. Students were also signing up for courses that they had previously avoided, like chemistry, and some were going to special tutoring sessions after school.

Mrs. Vitelli keeps tabs on her former animal laboratory students. Of 23 graduates of last year's class, 12 are in college, three have animal care jobs, two are in related hospital work, three are working outside health sciences, and three are in the Armed Forces. Mrs. Vitelli considers this an excellent record for students who were potential dropouts when they were in high school.

Small Classes Preferred

New Haven's pretechnical program has received a National Science Teachers Association award for innovative thinking in science curriculum. McGavack says it takes more than innovation, however, to carry out the metamorphosis of poor students. He stresses the great need for "the best teaching talent the schools can get from any source." He also considers knowledgeable consultants important in structuring courses. For the animal technology course he turned for advice to an associate professor of pathology at Yale who is director of its division of animal care. The chief of X-ray technology for Yale-New Haven Hospital was advisor for the new X-ray course.

Small class size—there are some 450 youngsters in the pretechnical courses each year and an average of 15 in each class session—also helps.

To build a better stairway leading to health jobs, McGavack is joining forces with local colleges and medical institutions. The consortium is made up of the New Haven public schools; the Yale-New Haven Medical Center, which includes the

Dunbar Medi-School students divide their time between the classroom and jobs at the nearby Johns Hopkins medical complex. English class assignments for Alonzo Williams (left, below) and James Alston, Jr., include writing reports on their duties at Johns Hopkins Hospital. Williams is assigned to the hospital's animal research laboratory and Alston works in cancer research. In the mornings Paulette Jones (right photo) studies medical shorthand. In the afternoons she puts her skills to use as a secretary at a hospital free clinic for neighborhood children.

two cities map different routes to same end

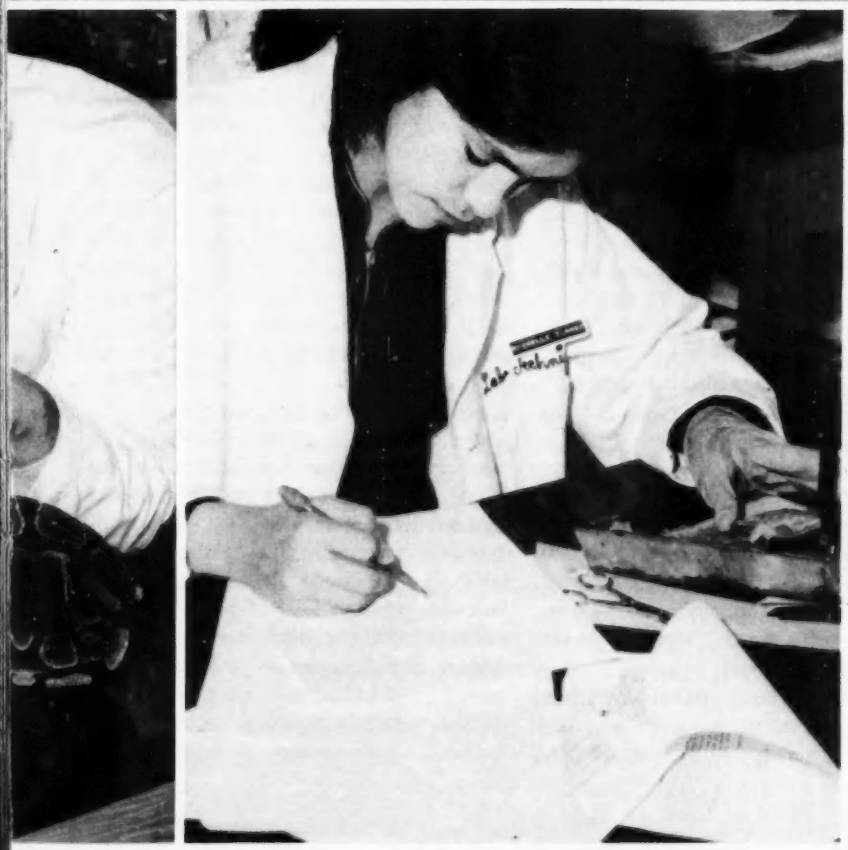
baltimore

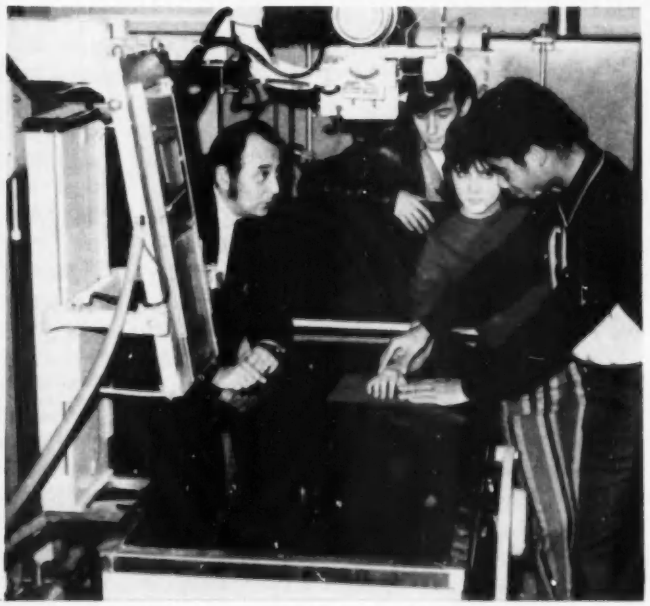
new haven

In New Haven, health occupations courses call for a full-time school schedule, with heavy emphasis on laboratory classes. Animal laboratory technology class, where students work with pythons, monkeys, and other animals, is especially popular.

Sharone Braxton spends her afternoons in a Johns Hopkins Hospital patient care area where her chores include measuring fluids.

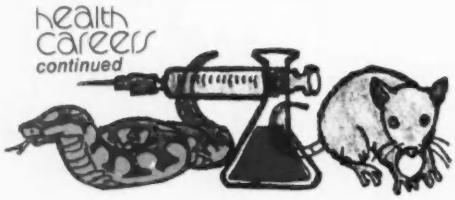
Ruth Biller, coordinator for health careers at Dunbar, pays a call on Judia Knight, who works in the Johns Hopkins Hospital autopsy room. Miss Knight shows Mrs. Biller an autopsy chart and explains what she is learning about dissection procedures.





Working under the guidance of instructor Paul Norback, X-ray technology students set up a practice shot. X-ray technology is the newest addition to the New Haven health occupations curriculum.

Dissecting a pig kidney helps medical laboratory technology student Michelle Tinney learn about the urinary system.



Yale School of Medicine, the Yale-New Haven Hospital, and the Connecticut Mental Health Center; nearby Quinnipiac College, a 4-year school and member of the Association of Schools of Allied Health Professions; and South Central Community College, which is still so new that its participation in this effort is expected to help shape its instructional program.

The consortium is attempting to set up a comprehensive health careers program. Among the many proposals are health careers counselors and more courses in the high schools; courses open to adults; summer studies coupled with on-job experience; and development of college programs to mesh with high school studies and work experience. Cost for the entire package, the group estimates, will be $5 million to be spent over 5 years.

None of the money is as yet in hand. McGavack says one of the difficulties is to get comprehensive funding instead of what he calls "drips and drabs for pieces of the program." Still, he is confident that consortium plans will go forward.

Poor Coordination Cited

A similar group, the Maryland Consortium for the Health Sciences composed of 11 members including colleges, hospitals, comprehensive care clinics, hospital schools, and government bureaus like the city health department, has been formed in Baltimore.

Studies by a planning committee led the way to formation of the group. The committee found that shortages of skilled health personnel were mounting and affecting patient care. The deficit could not effectively be dealt with by existing educational arrangements, the committee said, "despite vigorous efforts of hospital and collegiate health careers training programs." It identified the major problem as lack of coordination among hospitals, colleges, and health departments.

The committee said this made cooperative efforts almost impossible and resulted in barriers to health careers education and blockage in career mobility. There was also poor use of resources—such as faculty and education budgets—for training health manpower because curricula and goals were splintered and not based on total manpower needs.

It is hoped that the consortium will bring changes by facilitating the exchange of experiences and creative ideas, assessing community health requirements and student needs, and advising and supporting well established training programs and educational institutions.

One city program linked with the consortium is the Medi-School at Dunbar Community High School, an all-black school. Dunbar is surrounded on three sides by poverty and on its fourth by the Johns Hopkins medical institutions and their vast complex of patient facilities, staff residences, schools, and research laboratories. This juxtaposition gives Medi-School, which began last fall, its major thrust. Hopkins needs manpower, and Dunbar needs a meaningful future for its students. At present 32 Dunbar Medi-School seniors divide their time between the classroom and jobs in a work-study program leading toward health careers.

Each morning they take classes at Dunbar to meet graduation requirements and to study subjects like chemistry which will enrich their science background. Once a week they attend a seminar. Films and speakers, among them a black doctor who graduated from Dunbar, have helped students explore the great range of work choices in health careers.

In the afternoon students work for 3 hours at the Johns Hopkins hospital, school of public health, or medical school. All but two are paid $1.45 an hour through the U.S. Department of Labor's Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) program for in-school, disadvantaged youngsters. The other students, from families with incomes higher than those served by NYC, are paid with Federal funds through an Office of Education program.

Most of the youngsters have already made plans for their future. Judia Knight, for example, wants to be an embalmer. Her mother has long urged her to go into this business with her two younger brothers. Medi-School and work at Hopkins have given her a chance to find out if she wants to take this advice.

Miss Knight is the first Dunbar student to work in the hospital autopsy room. Before she was accepted, doctors let her watch an autopsy "to see if she had the stomach for it." She survived the experience—and also stayed up half the night reading books the doctors gave her on the subject. They are now teaching her dissection procedures.

But her age will delay Miss Knight's long-term plans. She is 17 and must be 21 to get an embalmer's license. Next year she will start a 2-year associate degree course in nursing at Community College of Baltimore, then take a job as a nurse. After a few years she plans to go back to school to study embalming.

Louise Bryant wants to take up histology—the microscopic study of tissues. She is now sampling this occupation in Hopkins' pathobiology department. Most of the time she processes brains of mice, which she puts through a variety of solutions and then mounts on slides for examination. She is fascinated by the study of hemorrhage, cancer, and viruses in mouse tissues. But she does not handle live mice or give them injections because she dislikes this part of the work.

Many Are College Bound

Four Dunbar girls are working in a hospital patient care area learning to be nursing assistants. Under the tutelage of a registered nurse whom Hopkins hired to teach and supervise them, they are learning to give baths, do "TPR's" (temperature, pulse, and respiration), take urine specimens, give enemas, do simple tests, learn isolation techniques for work in sterile and contaminated areas, and the like. A number of times the girls have watched operations. The purpose of this, their instructor says, is "not to show another interesting side of the hospital, but to help them understand why patients hurt and the reasons for procedures we use in patient care."

Generally, the girls spend three afternoons a week on a medical floor and two afternoons in classroom nursing studies at Hopkins. Most of them regard the job of nursing assistant as a way station on the route to other goals. Venice Harris, for example, hopes to be a surgeon. But first, she plans to take Hopkins' nursing assistant test at the end of the school year, then go to college and study to be a registered nurse while she works part time. If she fails to become a surgeon, she plans to become a surgical nurse.

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Many other health careers students are planning to go to college next year. To get into Medi-School they had to have top grades. Most of them were following an academic course of studies.

According to Ruth Biller, school coordinator of health careers, Dunbar got more scholarship money last year than any other high school in the city. No Dunbar student in recent years, she says, has failed to go to college for lack of money. And college acceptance is no problem either, she adds.

A number of the students will probably enroll at Community College of Baltimore, a low-tuition inner-city school whose students are almost all on a loan or a grant program and pursuing occupational careers.

With a successful start for the Medi-School, Dunbar is now planning to lengthen the school's reach. In the second semester this year it will begin taking interested 11th graders to visit Baltimore hospitals, Blue Cross-Blue Shield business offices, a medical instruments repair firm, and private dental laboratories. Next, 10th graders will be brought into the Medi-School program through seminars with people working in health fields.

Medi-School's most ambitious plans must wait upon construction of a new Dunbar high school for which a bond issue has already been approved. The Dunbar staff hopes for occupancy of the new building in 1973. Plans are for the new Dunbar to contain a cluster of health occupations studies open to high school students from all over the city. Baltimore schools already have an open door policy which permits students to attend the school of their choice. If the school is more than a mile from their homes, the State pays transportation.

Plans are to install predental assistant and prephysical therapy courses and some type of laboratory course in the new school. Classrooms will resemble work sites and have a nurses' station, laboratories, physical and occupational therapy sections, patient care sections with bath and bed units, dental clinic, and an academic wing resembling a medical theater. Curricula writing for these courses is now underway.

When this new Medi-School opens, health careers orientation will move down to the ninth grade. A field experience course will become part of 10th grade studies, and 11th graders will be able to start health occupations training. Dunbar staff is also trying to work out plans for regular school courses which will permit students to take all academic requirements in 3 years rather than 4. Then seniors in Medi-School could spend full time in health careers studies and on-job training.

Meanwhile, members of the Maryland Consortium for the Health Sciences and its cooperating agencies are planning to mesh their training with Dunbar studies. Mrs. Biller says career ladders will be set up in all of the health occupations. "These will be standardized units of continuing education and recognition of work," she reports. "Community College of Baltimore —a 2-year school—will recognize what a student has done at Dunbar and on a job. Morgan State College in Baltimore (which offers 4 years of undergraduate and master's degree studies) will recognize Community College work. Johns Hopkins will have connecting links all along the line.

"The channels will be open wide in health careers education. And disadvantaged youngsters can travel along them as far as their abilities and interests take them."

Other Programs Listed

Among the other efforts around the country to draw high school students into health careers are:

• The Mount Sinai School of Medicine in New York City is trying to attract low-income Puerto Rican and black youngsters into the health field. The youth go to Benjamin Franklin High School in Harlem —a school with about 1,200 entering ninth graders and only 350 graduates each year. Dr. Carter L. Marshall, Jr., who administers the inter-school program, believes he knows a way to get many youngsters to keep cracking at school books: Show them the excitement, financial rewards, and service available to them in health careers.

Dr. Marshall, associate professor of community medicine at Mount Sinai, has obtained a private foundation grant for the program. Last summer the grant made possible remedial studies for 70 students at Harlem Preparatory School and at Williston Academy in Easthampton, Mass., both private schools. Students made great leaps forward in their regular studies and got school credits. In special sessions with medical school staff they also learned much about health occupations.

All but four of the youngsters, plus 36 others from the high school, are now working at Mount Sinai 2 hours a day in a Neighborhood Youth Corps program. The four dropouts have been admitted to the School of Pharmacy at Columbia University on scholarships and on an experimental basis.

• The Developmental Center for Health Occupations at the Grants Pass, Oreg., high school has built a 2-year "health cluster" course which serves as a pilot for other State high schools. Juniors take core studies to prepare for a variety of health jobs. Seniors work for 2 hours daily in unpaid jobs in the community to learn the tasks of nurse aides or of medical laboratory, medical records, physiotherapy, veterinary, speech therapy, dental hygiene, pharmacy, and criminal laboratory assistants.

• The Pittsburgh Board of Education has developed high school program guides which were used by three city high schools to set up courses which prepare students as nursing assistants, ward clerks, and medical-secretaries.

• Ohio State University last year published "A Health Careers Development Program for the Rural High School." Copies are free upon request to: Dissemination Specialist, Center for Vocational and Technical Education, Ohio State University, 1900 Kenny Road, Columbus, Ohio 43210.

Clearly, health careers studies are making their way into more and more high schools in the Nation. Installing them, as John McGavack in New Haven can testify, requires a lot of persistence, energy, ingenuity, and money. The role of innovator is not often easy.

But McGavack, for one, does not begrudge the effort he has made to get these vocational courses in New Haven schools. "This is a hot field right now and will continue to be," he says. "The health industry is becoming one of the largest employers in the country. It is certainly among the fastest growing.

"Tough as it is for vocational education to get into new fields, we must move ahead in this one and do it quickly. We can't wait, because the world goes by." □

There's No Place Like Home

Ozarks Beckon Former Residents As City Lights Lose Their Lure

By Anne Woodward Corrigan

How're you going to keep them down on the farm after they've seen Chicago, Dallas, Los Angeles, Kansas City?

If the farm lay in the Ozark Mountains of Arkansas, Missouri, or Oklahoma, they may have gone home already.

Demographers and economists call the movement "return migration." It means that people who streamed out of green hills to city jobs—particularly in the 1950's—have started drifting back. It's too soon to tell if population imbalances will ever even out. But what is now a trickle may turn out to be a trend.

For years the Ozark region was severely distressed. Even Appalachia looked better when it came to employment, income, and education levels. More than half the rural housing in the Ozarks was classified as substandard. Anyone with ambition, bus fare, and commonsense seemed to take off for brighter lights and bigger paychecks elsewhere. From 1955 to 1960 the area's population showed a net loss of nearly 64,000 persons.

No longer. The outflow has slowed and many one-time out-migrants have become in-migrants —as much as 10 years later. Most of them are not coming back to farms. There is little agriculture left in the Ozark crescent. In Arkansas, where 44 counties are included in Ozark Redevelopment, the more than 200,000 farm jobs in existence in 1950 had hoed down to a quarter of that 15 years later.

Across the Nation, the scene has been virtually the same: Fewer people required to produce more

Mrs. Corrigan, now a special assistant to Sen. Adlai Stevenson, was with the Manpower Administration information staff when this article was written.

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food. The U.S. Department of Labor's latest manpower projections indicate no change in this. Predictions are that by 1980, farmworkers will occupy a mere 3 percent of the total labor force.

But in the Ozarks there is a crop of new jobs in the old alfalfa field. The economic boom which has helped beckon migrants back from cities began in the late 1950's, accelerating in 1965 with passage of the Ozark Redevelopment Act. The act provided no funds to help lure industry into the area, but did set up a study and planning commission which taps Federal agencies for aid with education and manpower training programs. Industry bought the package. Redevelopment changed the economic picture and the rural landscape, studding the Ozark countryside with small factories and swelling its towns and villages with new working populations. Nonagricultural employment in Arkansas increased by more than 200,000 persons in 2 decades—easily outstripping the rate for the United States as a whole. The Ozarks became one of the prime examples in the United States of successful development in a distressed area. From 1950 to 1969, factory employment more than doubled. It became so good that one firm advertised in San Diego for production workers.

"This is a good area for business," claims Dwain Newman, 37, who decided after 8½ years in Oklahoma City and Fayetteville, Ark., to try sales work in his old hometown of Springdale, Ark. (16,000 population). "We've gotten a lot of industry in the past 10 years. It's the selling the State has been doing."

Certainly it has worked out in his case. He was a newspaper production worker before returning home 8 years ago. For more than a year after returning he was a salesman for a paper company, then moved into sales for a plywood and door company in Springdale. After 3 years he was named general manager, and was recently also placed in charge of three other branches of the firm. He now has 90 people working under his supervision, and his income has risen 400 percent since his return.

"You can't consider the Ozarks a boom area but it's progressive," he insists. "That old stereotype of hillbillies standing in the doorway—you don't see it, especially in this part of the State (northwest)."

The recent economic slump is felt—but its impact is distributed evenly. Although there is some community specialization, the

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wide range of industries throughout the region acts as a built-in protective mechanism. If one or two factories fold, the Ozarks will not go down.

Ozark communities help their own cause. Cities or counties sometimes float bonds to build factories, or shells of factories, which they then lease to carefully screened firms. Sometimes the promise of a new industry evokes wider and unforeseen benefits. A shirt factory employing around 500 women wanted to move into Baxter County, Ark., but failed to get fire insurance because of the county's insufficient water supply. Then an Area Redevelopment Agency grant was obtained to build the water supply, in turn increasing the county's chance of further development.

Recreation possibilities in rural areas are being explored—and in some cases, developed. In the tri-state Ozark region, U.S. Army and civil engineers dammed rivers, transforming them into tranquil lakes for public use. A handful of millionaires liked the setting—and erected mansions nearby. Well-heeled professional people from Great Lakes cities took the cue, thought "fishing" and "boating," and tucked away sleek $35,000 second homes in the pleasant, unpolluted hills and valleys. Some moved in permanently, willing to accept salary cuts that went with new jobs in Ozark industries in fair trade for lower living costs and a more relaxed lifestyle.

These were important factors in Dwain Newman's decision to return. And they also influenced his neighbor, Lonnie Treat, 29, a drywall craftsman and contractor. Treat earned more during his 5 years in Chicago but the wear and tear of big city life brought him back to Springdale. "It's better for the children. You don't make near the money but it's not as crowded. It's like a vacation here all the time. We've got good hunting and fishing and all kinds of recreation. A lot of people drive all over the world to do it and we got it right here in Arkansas." Mrs. Treat agrees "it's a better life," though she thinks "living here is just as high as anywhere else."

Newman also took a pay cut to return but for him it was temporary. He now earns more than ever before and feels easier about his family's welfare in a small town. "We have our drugs and our crime but it's on a much smaller scale," he said. "Our children are not afraid to go out on the streets at night, like Oklahoma

City. That's what I enjoy, not having to worry if my 13-year-old boy wants to walk across town after dark." And unlike Mrs. Treat, he finds prices more reasonable.

Lower living costs also attract the elderly. Retirement communities, on Lake Dardanelle, for example, are giving those in Florida and California a run for pension money. An Arkansas real estate dealer's ad for "retirement farms" in the Ozarks appeared as far away as Alaska.

J. L. Page, 69, and his wife returned to Monett, Mo., a town of 6,500, to retire more than 6 years ago after 13 hectic years in Los Angeles. "We just took off back in 1951 and I got a job when I got out there," he explained. He was a parts analyst for a commercial refrigerator manufacturer. He likes being back home near his son and two grandchildren. And he says his social security, veteran's pension, and retirement payments from his former employer go much farther than they did in Los Angeles.

Retirees like Page are creating business opportunities for men like Newman and Treat. "My company sells a lot of the building supplies for retirement communities," Newman said. And Treat, as a drywall craftsman and contractor, helps to build them.

Many of the people heading back to the Ozarks have deep roots in the region—memories of a barefoot childhood there, kinfolk, friends. Trapped in an urban milieu by self-imposed exile, they find themselves cramped for living space, harassed by clatter and congestion, faced with horrendous price tags. For companionship, they seek out fellow exiles; the ties with home remain strong.

Nostalgia sets in—for mountain trails, rocky meadows, and post oaks under blue skies—and for "just visiting good people." There is a compulsion to check up on the "old folks" in their declining years, a yen to see cousin Jane or Jim, a yearning for rural simplicity and "real" values that seem crowded out in the competition of cities. They dream about watching stars at night instead of neon signs.

"I don't know what it was;" muses Mrs. Treat, explaining why she found big city life uncongenial. "I didn't care for it. It was too big after living in a small town. I hated to raise my kids in a big town like that."

"This is a real nice part of the country," says Page. "Everything's pretty peaceful and it's a nice place to live. There's not the hustle and bustle of a big town, and

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there's not as much crime." What annoyed him most about Los Angeles was "the congestion, the way people drive, the race question. Of course the weather is great. You had a choice of desert or mountains or the sea."

But, he added, "you take a town like L.A., or Chicago, or New York, it's a rat race, whatever you do. When you get older you give up the fast life."

Newman also feels racial problems and big city congestion are prompting people to return to rural life. "We're all looking for a kind of oasis," he says. "We visualize retiring to a lake and cabin. Most of us will probably never realize it, but it is a vision."

So they go back—and get jobs in streamlined "broiler and egg" poultry factories, or in modern paper, pharmaceutical, electrical machinery, or apparel plants. They go to build houses—for themselves or other people. They set up recreation businesses, too—opening motels, manning gas pumps, selling fishing tackle, renting golf clubs.

Two Economic Research Service specialists for the Department of Agriculture, making selective studies of in-migration in the Ozarks, have attempted to pin down the special qualities of returnees. Dr. Lloyd D. Bender, at Columbia, Mo., and Dr. Bernal L. Green, at Fayetteville, Ark., believe that the typical returnee is younger than other new in-migrants, and more likely to be working than retired (though many are retired). He is strongly family-oriented, willing to care for aging parents, and anxious to hold onto the family land.

According to Bender, "Only smart people can scrape a living out of the Ozark hillside." A traditional ability of hill folk to "make a buck go far" has endured. Bender and Green found that returnees to the craggy Ozarks drew an average wage of $6,300 in cities. Back home again, their annual pay drops to $3,300—just over the poverty line for a rural family of four.

"A big town pays twice as much money but you got twice as many headaches," said Treat. His wife, who did not work in Chicago, helps make up the difference. She owns and operates two beauty shops.

Wage earners supplement their salaries with swaps and trades of goods—sometimes at well thought-out profits. At shift's end in the modern factories, workers go home to middle-aged frame houses recently made more livable by adding a new room or two and touching it up with white paint.

Bender and Green discovered in a survey that new in-migrants and people moving about within the Ozark region tend to draw higher wages when they move, in contrast to the case of returnees. This backs up the view that family ties and other considerations, more than economic factors, are what motivate Ozark people to go home again.

How did the Ozarks, which started behind Appalachia, get so far ahead? According to Department of Agriculture demographer Calvin Beale, it's partly a matter of topography. From the valley to the south, the Ozarks are seen as a sharp escarpment. On the ridge, however, the land slopes away like the edge of a saucer. Roads are good, and the construction of the Arkansas River waterway has already provided jobs in the construction industry, opened up new port facilities, and will be ready in the 1970's for barge transportation up to Catoosa, Okla., (just east of Tulsa). Appalachia, on the other hand, is plagued by topography more chopped up than any other place in the Nation. Industry casts a jaundiced eye on its nearly inaccessible pockets, where people live in extreme poverty and cultural isolation.

There is one serious problem in the Ozark's redevelopment: Prosperity fails to filter down to its immobile rural poor. Bender and Green found that more than half the indigenous families in a sample Ozark area were still subsisting on incomes of less than $3,000 a year. Physical disability, advanced years, and a lack of marketable skills put heads of such households at the bottom of the list of desirable employees. When new jobs open up, younger, more active, and more skilled in-migrants grab them quickly.

One new facet in return migration is the tendency to go home if a job elsewhere suddenly gets wiped out. It happened during the Depression, and occurs in minor recessions, too. The aircraft factory worker in California knows that his unemployment check will buy more back home in Missouri—and with relatives around, he may not have to pay rent, or worry excessively about the food budget. The longer an economic slump, the greater the likelihood of counterstreams of migration. So far, return migration because of factory shutdown elsewhere has not been significant. It has not even been counted. What will happen in the future is anybody's guess. □

Managing Human Resources in the Public Service

By James W. Lundberg

In promoting the development of better human resources management, the U.S. Department of Labor's Public Service Careers Program calls for something signficantly new in American management—a systematic examination on the part of managers of how people are used to do work. Management practices in government are largely an outgrowth and extension of standard business techniques. And American business traditionally has emphasized productivity, efficiency, and profits. The needs of the people who composed the work force were secondary goals; when they were recognized at all, it was usually the result of union pressure. Now government managers at all levels are being asked to look at the work force in a broad context of systematic development of human resources to do the work that needs doing. It will be no easy task, for as a nation we have almost no experience in this approach to management.

Through most of its history, the United States has had little need and little motivation to develop fully its human resources. Various national policies served to supply adequate quantities of skilled manpower and obscured the need for concern about those citizens who were underutilized or excluded from the labor market.

In the South slavery provided sufficient manpower for early labor-intense industries. Immigration policies performed the same function for labor-intense industries, such as textile mills, in the North. When the mills were unionized and labor became more expensive, the mills moved south.

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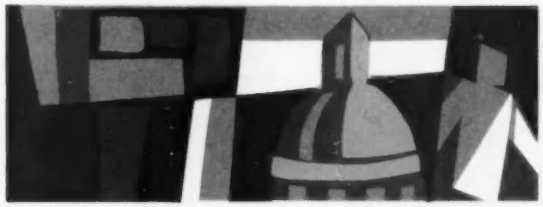

As jobs became more technical and required greater skills and education, immigration standards were raised and the public education system was expanded. The Morrill Act of 1862 created the first publicly supported colleges, designed primarily for agricultural and vocational education. When World War I accelerated the effects of industrialization, the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 was passed to provide additional vocational education at the high school level. The pattern, as always, was to train people to do available jobs.

The Great Depression of the 1930's created a vast pool of idle manpower and again counteracted the need to develop and appropriately use our human resources. As a result of massive unemployment, efforts were made to create jobs, but the concern was strictly quantitative. Nothing was done to look at the skills and potential capabilities of people and then design or redesign jobs to make the best possible use of those abilities. This kind of planning is what manpower development and human resources management are all about.

Crisis Demanded Attention

It can be rightly argued, of course, that the crisis of the 1930's demanded immediate solutions and did not allow us to address ourselves to this broader and more difficult task. The fact remains that the policies and programs of the 1930's never reflected any understanding of human resource management as we mean it today.

The Depression period is significant for another reason when viewing manpower trends in perspective. It began a pattern in public sector employment that is still having its effect. As the Depression idled a vast pool of educated, skilled, and unused manpower, restrictive entry standards were developed by employers as a way to keep the screening and testing workload manageable. This was particularly true in the public sector, where it was logical for a frustrated citizen to turn when he could not find private employment. Merit systems reinforced and formalized this pattern. Personnel people received praise and promotions for producing overqualified candidates for jobs.

The tendency to hire overqualified people has continued, and as a study by Dr. Ivar Berg of Columbia University has shown, overqualified people tend to be less productive and more dissatisfied with their jobs than persons whose qualifications are more appropriate to their work. While the labor shortages of World War II temporarily reversed the trend toward more restrictive entry standards, it was reestablished during the labor surplus period of the 1950's and early 1960's. With an overabundant supply of educated and trained people available for jobs, there was little national concern for citizens who were left out or underused.

Public awareness of those left out of the system became evident for the first time in the 1960's as pressing economic and social problems led the government into a variety of new manpower and poverty programs. From this decade of experience came awareness and insights that stimulated the present concern for development and use of human resources.

The evolution in national manpower thinking that marked the 1960's began with passage of the Area Redevelopment Act in 1961 and the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) in 1962. Both emphasized retraining people who had temporarily lost their ability to earn decent wages, either because of regional economic conditions or technological change. However, by the mid-1960's it had become clear that neither a general economic upturn nor retraining would answer the problems of hard-core poverty. To meet this need the Economic Opportunity Act was passed in 1964.

The programs created by the Economic Opportunity Act were the first to be directed specifically at hard-core poverty. In effect, the Nation acknowledged that people were unemployed not only because they were lazy or shiftless or because industry had moved or modernized. More often, they were unemployed because of racism and urban and rural inadequacies which directly affected their employability—problems like poor transportation, irrelevant education systems, substandard housing, lack of day care facilities, and insufficient health services.

Job Tailored to Fit People

The first halting steps toward addressing these problems produced the Job Corps and the Neighborhood Youth Corps. These programs demonstrated the need for specialized training and job development if the hard-core poor were to be fitted into traditional work patterns. The 1964 amendments to the MDTA made available substantial funds not just for retraining, but for training those who never at any time had possessed a skill.

Subsequent programs, such as Operation Mainstream, which combined elements of training and income maintenance, were a response to the realization that because of age, health, geography, and similar factors some people would find it extremely difficult to obtain competitive employment. Efforts also were made to develop viable economic institutions in ghettos and poverty pockets to generate new jobs and income within the community.

Still, as late as 1966, manpower philosophy, policies, and programs were directed almost solely at training and retraining. The two words "manpower" and "training" came, in fact, to be used interchangeably. It was not until passage of the New Careers amendment to the Economic Opportunity Act in 1966 that steps

were taken to implement the idea that jobs should be retailored to fit people as well as training and retraining people to fit jobs. This was the first concentrated effort to affect both sides of the equation in human resource management—the jobs themselves and the people who do them.

The New Careers Program sought new ways of employing people to do work. And it recognized that these new jobs and careers required innovative training, using techniques that would capture and hold the attention of people who had been turned off by traditional approaches. It also recognized the multitude of hindrances that the poor suffer in their search for productive employment and made available supportive medical, educational, and child care services to help participants complete their training and make the difficult transition to a new job.

In advocating new ways of using people, New Careers was supposed to have an enormous impact on the way public agencies delivered human services. It was intended to change the thinking of public administrators and the way they ran their agencies. It was going to attempt the more difficult half of human resources management, modifying the structure of jobs. However, the program was applied as an external force on public institutions. Few public personnel administrators were consulted during the creation of the program, and the projects were usually given to local community action agencies to operate, which meant that New Careers often was viewed as a threat by the local administrators whose agencies were to be changed.

Unfortunately, all the money, resources, and assistance for New Careers went to the local projects. Money was spent to develop the New Careers project staff skills in recruitment, counseling, and job development, and to train the poor to work in human services agencies. But no money went to help the managers and administrators of those agencies understand the New Careers concept or to build staff capacity to use new careerists to accomplish the agency mission more effectively. Personnel management offices of most public agencies remained understaffed, underfunded, and relatively untouched by the New Careers Program.

With the advent of the Public Service Careers (PSC) Program in 1969, manpower programing took another major step forward. PSC is more nearly a total system for planning the development and use of our human resources than any prior effort.

'Hire First, Train Later'

For the first time the public sector is being asked to "hire first, train later," as the private sector has been doing through the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program. This means that the public sector is being asked to do its share of training and development, a responsibility it has always disdained. Training has usually been the undernourished stepchild of public personnel systems, primarily because the merit system concept maintained that a person must first gain the qualifications, then compete for a position in government.

An even more important aspect of PSC is that it provides resources to review, analyze, and change the ways we use people to do work. The New Careers Program called for this kind of change, but PSC is the first to provide the planning time and funds to do it. And the money goes directly to the public administrators who must initiate the changes and the personnel staffs which must develop and apply the new management skills, such as task analysis and job restructuring, which are needed tools in human resources management. This is the most realistic approach, because lasting change can come only from within an agency.

The goal of human resources development is to design job structures that combine useful work assignments for unskilled and poorly educated people with maximum opportunity for training and advancement. The essential elements of human resources development are:

- Programs to train employees in needed job skills so the organization's work can be handled effectively and employees can reach their maximum potential.
- Additional support, such as day care, transportation, and medical services, for disadvantaged persons during training and on the job as needed.
- Work assignments that pay decent salaries and contribute to accomplishment of agency objectives.
- Organization of work tasks and of the job hierarchy to make the most effective use of people at all stages of their personal development.

Most public administrators and personnel managers are quick to see from a professional viewpoint the long-term benefits stemming from improved management of the work force. It is to be hoped that they also will see how human resources development can contribute to this goal. More efficient use of people over a period of time not only will increase productivity significantly, but, in cost-benefit terms, could bring substantial savings in tax expenditures. Private industry studies reported in the July 1969 PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION magazine showed that investments in human resources development usually produced a profit in productivity.

Since more people are employed in the delivery of government services at all levels today than in any other field of work, the PSC strategy for human resources management could produce tremendous socioeconomic benefits. The PSC approach to human resources development should be incorporated in the program planning budgeting systems that are being used by more and more progressive public agencies. In fact, job restructuring (on the demand side) and imaginative use of training (on the supply side of the equation) are the program budgeting system approach applied to personnel administration.

Now public administrators can build into their agencies the capacity for change —not as a reaction to social, economic, or legislative pressure, but as a planned management tool. □

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News & Notes

The U.S. Department of Labor now publishes a weekly news service for Hispanos. It is called "Noticias de la Semana" (News of the Week). News of direct interest to Spanish-surnamed people as well as material of general interest is offered. The primary objective of the service is "to strengthen communications between the Department and a significant segment of the population which relies on our services," said Labor Secretary J. D. Hodgson.

* * *

A new Labor Department film showing how the Job Bank helps employers and the unemployed is now available for viewing. "To Fill a Need," a 26-minute color movie, may be borrowed free of charge by employers and civic groups through State employment security agencies. Job Banks are daily computer listings of job openings made available city-wide at all employment service offices to speed up job placement.

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A 37-year-old woman was fired by an Arkansas firm for refusing to wear a brassiere to work. She sued, claiming dismissal violated the 1964 Civil Rights Act, since the company did not require men to wear bras. She lost the case.

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If present trends continue, unemployment insurance benefit payments will reach $4.9 billion in fiscal 1971 compared to $2.8 billion last year.

* * *

The AFL-CIO will continue its assistance in Federal manpower programs for another year. The Manpower Administration has awarded the union's Human Resources Development Institute a new $2.2 million contract to help labor and management recruit, train, employ, and upgrade the skills of the unemployed and underemployed. Under its first contract, the union, operating in 45 major labor areas, introduced the buddy system (an old employee counsels a new one) to more than 100 employers, promoted hiring and upgrading under the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program with 500 employers, and promoted the Neighborhood Youth Corps summer program among unions.

More than 1,400 servicemen will receive training as cement masons and plasterers at 12 Army bases in the U.S. under a 16-month, $456,000 Labor Department contract with the Portland Cement Association. The training will lead to 2- and 3-year apprenticeships when the men leave the Army. The contract is part of the Defense Department's Transition Program, conducted by industry, government agencies, and the Armed Forces to train eligible servicemen in a variety of occupations 6 months before separation from service.

* * *

A $1.2 million 2-year contract to operate a Job Corps residential training center for women in Tulsa has been awarded to Century Geophysical Corp. Women 16 through 21 will be taught job skills in clerical, health, food service, and sales work. The center will house 100 trainees. Another 25 will commute daily from their homes. Other new residential manpower centers opened by the Labor Department since July 1, 1969, are in Atlanta, Cincinnati, Phoenix, El Paso, Honolulu, Edison (N.J.), Portland (Oreg.), San Francisco, and Washington, D.C.

* * *

Barbers have been taking a financial beating in recent years because of the trend to long hair. Now they are striking back. Haircutters in Perth Amboy, N.J., have threatened to stop patronizing local businesses hiring anyone with "an unreasonable amount of hair." The barbers have also asked the local Board of Health to "doublecheck any food handler with long hair."

* * *

The Labor Department has raised by about $200 the income guides it uses in determining eligibility for manpower programs for the poor. A family of four now qualifies if it lives on a farm and has less than $3,200 in annual income, or $3,800 if it lives in the city.

* * *

More than 500,000 black college graduates are now in the labor force, about twice the number in 1960, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. By 1980, the number will rise to about 1 million.

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driving ambition pays off in jobs

Arnita Williams and John Lee are teachers. But not inside ivy-covered walls. Their classrooms are the streets of Washington, D.C. They are teaching people how to drive.

It is not easy. The busy streets of the Nation's Capital are not only packed with the traffic common to any metropolis but have the added hazard of tourists from all over the country who sometimes let sightseeing interfere with careful driving.

But Miss Williams and Lee are not complaining. They like being out in the open air, dealing with the public. They like driving and they like teaching. And there is no surplus of teachers in their field as there is of the classroom variety. There is a shortage—which is one reason the U.S. Department of Labor is funding their training at Easy Method Driving School through the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program.

"I love the work," said Lee, who, with the air of an expert (which he is rapidly becoming) shares the secrets of the trade. "If you can start them laughing, that's it. You got 'em! They begin to learn. You can't be a stuffed shirt. That keeps them on edge. Make them relax and they learn better. As long as they're tense, they don't hear what you say."

The hardest thing to teach budding drivers is "to use their eyes," according to 25-year-old Miss Williams. "Ninety percent of driving is done with the eyes."

A large number of Easy Method's students are married women. They pay $9.90 a lesson to learn how to drive a car with automatic transmission and $10.90 for manual shift. Sometimes they need 12 to 15 lessons to learn. Why don't they let their husbands teach them and save that money?

"Some men don't trust their wives with their cars," said Miss Williams.

"Their husbands holler and scream," said Lee. "They learn quicker from us."

Easy Method general manager Bob Roberts agrees. "Some women who would scream their heads off at their husbands will be meek as a lamb with a professional instructor," he said. "Our top instructor would have the same problem with his wife. There is too much tension arising out of the personal relationship."

It is easy to see how driver training can be a trying experience. Instructors issue a fairly steady patter of directions as they sit at the dual controls with the students. "See how the lane widens," Lee told a student, a youthful office manager for two doctors, as they rolled along a busy street. "Stay to the right of the center line. . . . Make a left at the stop sign. . . . Stop at the white line. . . . Ease out now so you can see the traffic. . . . See the light ahead. It's green now. But it may change. Anticipate."

The difference is in the style and technique of a professional. Lee's voice remained low and calm. For long stretches,

he said nothing or very little. When the student stopped too abruptly at an intersection, throwing herself and Lee forward, he said nothing. There was no harm done. He waited 30 seconds and then told her, not what she already knew, that she had made an error, but rather the reason she made it. She had waited too long before going for the brake.

She protested his judgment. He listened calmly and then said something few husbands could get away with: "Don't argue with me." It came out softly with a touch of wry humor, and the mini dispute subsided.

Lee had set a light, humorous tone at the very outset of the lesson, and the student fell right in with it. As they took their places behind the wheels, he said: "Don't shake."

"I'm not shaking, are you?" she asked. They both laughed and the lesson was on its way.

He used a different technique with his second pupil of the day, an older woman employed by the Public Health Department as a mental health technician. She was much more nervous and tense than his first student. He made polite small talk and then inquired seriously about her sister, who apparently was sick. Only when rapport was firmly established did he try any humor.

For Lee, a former police officer and then a maintenance man, the hardest thing to learn was what he now does best: Talking. "I had to concentrate on it. I was the silent type, even back in school. Now I'm picking it up. Some people say I talk too much."

Miss Williams also uses a blend of small talk and wit to help her pupils. This was particularly important for one of her recent students, a young housewife from Pakistan unaccustomed to American traffic. On her first lesson she tended to ride the accelerator too hard. By the third

The driving lane ahead is clogged and instructor Arnita Williams thrusts out her hand to show a student driver how to get safely around the rain slowed traffic.

"Safety first, but step on the gas," Miss Williams (left) tells Mrs. Razia Memon as they move slowly through the rain.

lesson, Miss Williams' stress on safety had her traveling at a crawl down busy Connecticut Avenue. "Safety is the first thing, but use a little more gas," Miss Williams advised.

The JOBS contract calls for 9 months of training for 22 instructors like Lee and Williams and three office clerks. Easy Method hired Northern Systems Company, a subsidiary of Northern Natural Gas Company of Omaha, to provide job-related education, orientation, and counseling for the trainees, and to instruct supervisors in handling disadvantaged employees. On-the-job training is done by Easy Method. The Federal cost is $67,000.

The program started in August 1970. By the end of January, 34 men and women had been hired, and 20 were still in training. Of the 14 dropouts, 10 left because they were "not qualified to become driving instructors," according to Richard L. Klaas, a Northern Systems technical consultant and trainer.

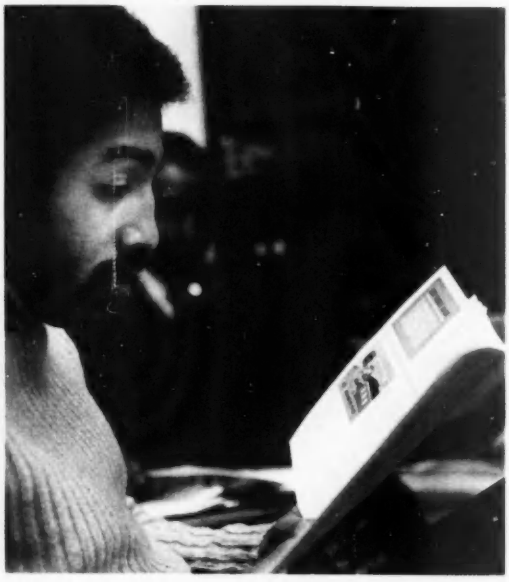
Getting a driving instructor's license in the District of Columbia is not easy. An applicant must not only pass stiff tests and be a resident of the area for 1 year, but must also have a clean driving and criminal record. He must also be at least 25 years old to meet insurance requirements.

The classroom atmosphere is easy and informal. "Give me an example of a moving hazard," Klaas asked his class. "A pretty gal walking along," shot back one of his pupils. Despite the fun, the school is serious. The motto is: "Don't learn traffic laws by accident. Drive carefully."

Trainees begin their 9-month course with 40 hours of orientation. For the next 16 weeks, they get 10 hours a week of basic education, 2 hours of counseling, and 28 hours of on-the-job training taught by experienced supervisors. The basic education includes teaching techniques, social skills, and reading and math if required. The last 22 weeks are spent almost solely in on-the-job training with 2 hours of weekly counseling, as needed.

Trainees, who are hired first and trained later, are paid $2 an hour from the time they are accepted by Easy Method, following certification by the employment service that they qualify as hard-core unemployed. The pay increases to $2.40 after 16 weeks, and $2.90 plus double time

Student instructor Michael Adams ponders a safety lesson during a classroom session.



In crowded Washington, precision parking is a must for drivers. But beginners need a little elbow room, so student instructor John Lee uses an open space on the Mall near the Capitol for training a new driver.

for overtime at the end of 9 months. Once they begin teaching, even on an on-the-job training basis, they are permitted to have their training cars for their personal use.

Social skills are probably the most important part of the classroom training. What it means, simply, is handling the driving students, who are customers.

"The student must feel a sense of accomplishment," Klaas says. "Be courteous and be honest, regardless of the customer's attitude or what the customer says to you. Don't blow your cool or you will probably lose the customer."

Klaas sets up role-playing situations so trainees can practice responses to whatever the customer is apt to say. A worried student driver, for example, is usually discouraged. His reaction may be to give up. A bit of reassurance can pluck up his spirits, if the instructor does it right.

Lee apparently has mastered this skill. When the office manager he was teaching had trouble staying in her driving lane, she betrayed her anxiety by saying, "I'll never learn."

"I think you'll make it," Lee said calmly.

"But parking worries me," she said, somewhat irrelevantly.

"That's the easiest part of the test," he said. "You can learn it in one lesson."

By the time he let her out at her place of business, her confidence and enthusiasm had returned. And like a good salesman, he didn't say, "Shall I come back tomorrow?" He said, "What time shall I come back tomorrow?" "Noon," she said, finally, and he had made another sale.

Repeat business like this—and referrals from satisfied customers—are the company's life blood. Roberts says he has not found advertising especially effective.

Nearly all the JOBS trainees are black and Roberts admits there is some prejudice against them. But this prejudice is not confined to white customers. "We've had black students who asked for white instructors," he said.

Five years ago, sending a black instructor to teach a white might have led to "drastic repercussions," Roberts said. "But times have changed. The first lesson might be a problem, but if the instructor is good any racial problem usually ends right there." If a customer insists on a change, Roberts will make it, but he is concerned about the instructor's feelings as well as the customer's.

"Roberts is one of the fairest men I've ever met," said Lee.

Although several of them have been outstanding, Roberts says prejudice against women instructors seems to be stronger than against blacks. To overcome this, the company tries to be selective in the customers it assigns to women teachers, usually referring women and teenagers to them.

During the winter months, when business is slow, the company has about 45 cars on the road. During the summer peak, when the number of cars rises to 80 or 90, temporary help is hired, and regular instructors get a lot of overtime. Roberts says supervisors earn around $10,000 a year and during the summer some instructors make $200 a week and more. Miss Williams remembers that during a contest last summer one instructor earned $300 in a week and won a color TV set as a prize.

Roberts says his company, which has been in business 40 years, signed a JOBS contract because it supports the objectives of the program to hire and train the disadvantaged for good jobs. He admits frankly, however, that it also "fit in ideally with what is a problem,"—finding, training, and keeping a dependable work force. "It's very difficult and time-consuming to get an instructor licensed by the District," he said. "We need a lot of them in the summer when we get a rush of business. This program allows us to train people thoroughly over the slow winter months and will help develop a labor reserve."

His one regret is that the winter lull made it impossible to give the trainee instructors enough work. "Some are qualified instructors," Roberts said, "but we don't have the cars or business to keep them busy all the time."

Still, Miss Williams was content. "I like people," she said. "I like helping people. I like meeting new people. On my last job (she was a file clerk) it seems like I was just hemmed in." □

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JOB SAFETY IS EVERYBODY'S JOB

An Open Letter From J. D. Hodgson

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY
WASHINGTON

The Williams-Steiger Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 will take effect April 28. The date carries special significance for millions of Americans, marking the dawn of a new era in the American workplace by providing for the safety and health of our people while they work.

Of mounting national concern are the 14,000 deaths and 2 million disabling injuries that have been an annual occurrence in the workplace for more than a decade. In signing the Act on December 29, 1970, President Nixon noted that it is probably one of the most important pieces of legislation, from the standpoint of the 4.1 million employers and 57 million employees covered by it, ever passed by the Congress of the United States.

In the U.S. Department of Labor we are now considering the initial standards to be adopted when the law takes effect. These will be standards designed to protect working people from occupational hazards whether to their safety or to their health while on the job. We hope to begin promulgating these standards on or about the date when the law becomes effective. Their designation will be accompanied by public announcements, and complete information can be obtained from representatives of the Labor Department in principal cities across the Nation. New standards will be promulgated or existing ones modified from time to time in the future. All employers and employees should familiarize themselves with our job safety and health standards and observe them at all times.

In setting standards, the Act requires the Secretary of Labor to consider the urgency of the need in particular industries. Firms with high injury frequency rates will surely be an immediate concern of our safety inspectors.

A feature of the new law that will help us focus more precisely on occupational hazards is a more comprehensive requirement, applicable to all employers, for keeping accurate records of all on-the-job injuries.

Every employee has the right, under this law, to report on-job safety and health hazards to the Secretary of Labor. We intend to follow up on all such complaints as well as conduct inspections on our own initiative. The law provides for fines where companies are found in noncompliance with standards. It also prohibits employers from discriminating against employees who complain of such unsafe and unhealthful conditions.

The Labor Department will need the help and assistance of all concerned--employers and employees--in the implementation of the Williams-Steiger Occupational Safety and Health Act.

In the fullest sense, job safety is everybody's job.

J. D. Hodgson
Secretary of Labor

Publications

Following is a selected list of publications on manpower and related matters. Single copies of Manpower Administration publications for which no price is indicated can be obtained free by writing or telephoning the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210. Requests for copies of other free publications listed should be sent directly to the source indicated at the following addresses: Bureau of Labor Standards, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210; Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20212. For publications not available free, write the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, and enclose payment.

Employer Manpower Planning and Forecasting

Manpower Administration report on study designed to learn what private employers in Minnesota were doing in their manpower planning and forecasting. Provides case examples and attempts to generalize from survey findings, to analyze problems encountered in planning, and to develop some basic guidelines for manpower planning by individual firms. 50 cents.

Unemployment Insurance Tax Rates by Industry—1968

Annual Manpower Administration statistical publication provides information on differences in unemployment insurance tax rates among industries and States.

Project Safe—USA

Bureau of Labor Standards booklet presents a basic prestructured "self-help" plan for a United Safety Action program, easily adaptable to almost any specific need. (Single copies available free from Bureau of Labor Standards.) 25 cents.

Inspection Survey Guide

"Do-it-yourself" guide by Bureau of Labor Standards to help Federal contractors comply with safety and health regulations. Catalogs, by hazard category, all major safety and health standards, codes, rules, and specifications adopted as regulations under Walsh-Healey Public Contracts Act and McNamara-O'Hara Service Contract Act. Should be helpful to company safety and operating personnel, design engineers, insurance industry engineers, and State safety inspectors. $2.25.

State Economic and Social Indicators

Bureau of Labor Standards statistical bulletin directed to States and civic and labor-management organizations that are trying to improve labor legislation and other programs to improve status of wage earners. Data provide broad measures of dimensions and quality of life in various States that may affect worker welfare. (Single copies available free from Bureau of Labor Standards.) $1.00.

Why Not Be an Apprentice?

Women's Bureau illustrated leaflet in the Careers for Women series. Answers 10 questions most often asked about opportunities for women in apprenticeship. 10 cents.

Continuing Education Programs and Services for Women

Women's Bureau booklet to help acquaint adult women with types of special educational programs being offered (listed by State) and to stimulate additional colleges and universities to respond to special educational needs of mature women. 40 cents.

Scientific and Technical Personnel in Industry, 1967

Bureau of Labor Statistics survey report attempts to relate scientific and technical personnel to their jobs on an individual plant rather than a company-wide basis. Data should be useful as base for projections, career counseling, manpower planning for State and industry, and guidelines for training needs to fill manpower requirements. 60 cents.

Occupational Outlook for College Graduates—1970-71

Bureau of Labor Statistics guide to employment opportunities in broad range of professional and related occupations for which a college education is either required, becoming increasingly necessary, or the usual educational background for employment. $2.00.

Outlook for Computer Process Control

Bureau of Labor Statistics bulletin provides firsthand information on manpower and economic implications of computer process control through study of applications in user plants. Focuses mainly on effect of computer process control on employment, occupations, skills, training, and labor-management relations. Also emphasizes outlook for future of computer process control, extent of its use by industry, and its impact on production and productivity. Gives account of procedures some companies used in planning and effecting changes. 70 cents.

Education and Jobs Pamphlets

These 6- and 12-page pamphlets by Bureau of Labor Statistics help young people match levels of education with job opportunities. Each lists scores of occupations, giving number of persons employed, employment outlook and trends, and entrance qualifications. Titles are:

JOBS FOR WHICH—

- A High School Education Is Preferred But Not Essential
- A High School Education Is Generally Required
- Apprenticeship Training Is Available
- Junior College, Technical Institute, or Other Specialized Training Is Usually Required
- A College Education Is Usually Required

Publications of Bureau of Labor Statistics—July-December 1969

Alphabetic annotated bibliography by subject of publications released by Bureau of Labor Statistics between July and December 1969.

Annual Earnings and Employment Patterns of Private Nonagricultural Employees—1965

Second in series of studies by Bureau of Labor Statistics of annual earnings of private nonagricultural employees. First to cover earnings in total private nonagricultural sector and to provide distributions of earnings for sector as a whole, for each industry division, and for selected industry groups at three digit Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) level. Also provides data for each major industry group at two digit SIC level. 70 cents.

Indexes of Output Per Man-Hour, Selected Industries—1939 and 1947-69

Bureau of Labor Statistics bulletin updates industry index of output per man-hour, output per employee, and unit labor requirements for industries currently included in U.S. Government's productivity measurement program. Indexes for major household appliances and sugar (replacing beet sugar index) industries are included for first time. $1.00.

Tomorrow's Manpower Needs—Supplement No. 2

Second in series of Bureau of Labor Statistics reports on national manpower data presents revised 1975 industry employment projections and discussion of procedures for adjusting State and wage and salary employment to total employment concept. Supplement No. 1 presented revised employment projections to 1975 for construction industry and individual construction trades.

Employment and Earnings—States and Areas, 1939-69

Eighth comprehensive historical reference volume of State and area employment and earnings statistics by Bureau of Labor Statistics. Data relate to nonfarm sector of economy. Special section gives analytical and summary data. $4.50.

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Teaching driving requires more than knowing about automobiles. Social skills–getting along with people, making them feel at ease, dispelling their tensions–also are necessary for success. So new instructors learn these skills along with the rules of the road. For a glimpse of how some people are taught to teach other people to drive, see ***Driving Ambition Pays Off in Jobs*** in this issue of MANPOWER.

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